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No. VI.

ART. I.—*Oriental Commerce*; containing a geographical description of the principal places in the East Indies, China, and Japan, with their produce, manufactures, and trade, including the coasting or country trade, from port to port; also the rise and progress of the trade of the various European natives with the Eastern World, particularly that of the English East India Company; from the discovery of the passage round the Cape of Good Hope to the present period; with an account of the Company's establishments, revenues, debts, assets, &c. at home and abroad;—deduced from authentic documents, and founded upon practical experience obtained in the course of seven voyages to India and China, by William Milburn, Esq. of the Hon. East India Company's service; with Maps. Dedicated to the Earl of Buckinghamshire. 2 vols. Folio. pp. 413-581. £6. 6s. Black and Parry, 1813.

It is asserted by the fifth report of the select committee of the House of Commons on the affairs of the East India Company, that 'the strength of the government of British India, directed as it has been, has had the effect of securing its subjects as well from foreign depredation, as from internal commotion. This is an advantage rarely experienced by the subjects of Asiatic states; and, combined with a domestic administration, more just in its principles, and exercised with far greater integrity and ability than the native one that preceded it, may sufficiently account for the improvements that have

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taken place; and which, in the Bengal provinces, where peace has been enjoyed for a period of time perhaps, hardly parallel in oriental history, have manifested themselves in the ameliorated condition of the great mass of the population; although certain classes may have been depressed by the indispensable policy of a foreign government. The nature and circumstances of our situation prescribe narrow limits to the prospects of the natives, in the political and military branches of the public service: strictly speaking, however, they were foreigners who generally enjoyed the great offices in those departments, even under the Moghul government:—but in AGRICULTURE and COMMERCE every encouragement is afforded, under a system of laws, the pre-eminent object of which is to protect the weak from oppression, and to secure to every individual the fruits of his industry. The country, as may be expected, has, under these circumstances, exhibited, in every part of it, improvement on a general view, advancing with accelerated progress in later times.

To draw an animated picture of the gradual rise, from a state of barbarism to a high degree of civilization, of a vast and extended empire, is an undertaking of no small importance. It requires an intimate personal knowledge of the features to be statistically, geographically, and commercially described—an intimacy with the native languages—a facility of access to documents of esteemed veracity, from antiquity, progressively to the present day;—together with taste, experience, superior attainments, and a style flowing and perspicuous, to give interest to, and impress conviction on the mind of the reader. However arduous this labour, we venture to pronounce the volumes before us, to be worthy the public patronage.

Bengal, the first of our presidencies, is historically stated to have been originally tributary to the sovereigns of Oude;—that sovereignty, however, has, from a variety of temporal changes, and state revolutions, become an absolute dependancy on the British government. This fallen monarchy has been, more than once, the object of parliamentary enquiry, and that so lately, as in the person of Marquis Wellesley; but it was clearly proved, at the bar of the house, that his Lordship's conduct had been founded in a vigour of luminous policy rarely equalled;

and, that the wisdom of his administration had effected the most salutary and permanent reform throughout the country he governed. In this great work, he was materially assisted by the military achievements of his illustrious brother,—whose glory dawned in Asia, and has, since, irradiated Europe with meridian splendour.

On this subject, we propose giving our sentiments, more at large, in a volume now before us in review, which will occupy a portion of this number; and we trust to shew, that whatever the brilliant talents, or the dignified virtues of a Hastings, or a Cornwallis, may have effected towards the happiness and prosperity of British India, yet, the classical introduction of the national languages—the policy of the Mahratta war—the glorious conquests which followed our arms—the extension of our territory—and the general blessings resulting therefrom, as well to the natives as to the British, will be monuments to the name of Wellesley, so long as the records of the East India Company shall have existence.

In his preface, our author tells us, and with truth, that the commercial concerns within the limits of the East India Company's charter, are so little known in Great Britain, that any attempt to elucidate them must always be acceptable, but more particularly so at the present time, when the public attention is much directed to the consideration of East India affairs. His knowledge have arisen from a twenty-five years active employ in the service of the Company, and in commercial pursuits in England, immediately connected with it. His geographical and historical materials have been selected from the best authorities; and personal unwearied research, has eventually enabled him so to compile and to digest the whole of this excellent work, that it is at once profound, curious, entertaining, and instructive. It develops the advantages Great Britain has derived from its commerce with the East Indies, for upwards of two centuries, by the immense wealth it has introduced into the country;—the large pecuniary supplies it has afforded to the British government, and the assistance it has given to the naval power, to which her exaltation among rival nations may be materially attributed.

The first volume opens with the rise and progress of the commerce between England and the East Indies, in

which the author pursues a regular train of chronological events to exemplify the same; and closes that part of his narrative with the following sentiment, as delivered by my Lord Castlereagh to the House of Commons, on the 22d of March 1813.

'The mode of government adopted by the East India Company, has raised and preserved an Empire unprecedented in the history of the world; and they have governed the people under their control on a principle eminently calculated to produce the happiness of the governed. I do not believe the history of the world has ever produced its parallel; a system by which a population of fifty millions of native subjects are governed, while the civil officers of the Company, by whom the government is conducted, does not exceed sixteen hundred; and this, too, under a government, than which there never was a milder, nor one by which the happiness of the people is more consulted.

CHAP. I.—*The Madeiras.*

Porto Sancto..The Desertas..Madeira..General description..Coins, weights, and measures..Articles of import..Amount of imports and exports..Exports..Denominations of wines..their prices..quantity imported into British India in 1805..prices of Madeira at Bombay..East India Company's Regulation relative to Madeira..Import and Export duties..Port charges, &c..Port regulations..Provisions and refreshments.

All these varieties are briefly, yet clearly, described, with the assistance of admirable tables distinctly explaining the several objects comprehended within this chapter.

CHAP. II.—*The Canary Islands.*

Their number..Lanceerota; description, trade, &c.—Fuertaventura; description, trade, &c...Grand Canaria; description, trade, &c...Teneriffe, Santa Cruz; description, coins, weights, measures..Imports from London, and their amount..articles of which they consisted..Exports..Duties..Port regulations and charges..Provisions and refreshments..Orotava; description..Palma; description, trade, &c...Gomero; description..Hierro; description..Orchilla weed..Rose wood.

CHAP. III.—*Cape de Verd Islands.*

Their number..Sal..Bonavista..Mayo..St. Jago; description..

Porto Praya; naval action there..Imports and Exports..
Cloths manufactured..Provisions and refreshments..Fogo..Brava
St. Nicholas..St. Lucia..St. Vincent..St. Antonio.

CHAP. IV.—*South America.*

Ports visited by East India Ships in Brazil..St. Salvador; description..Coins, weights, measures..Imports and exports..Port Regulations..Provisions and refreshments..Rio de Janiero; description..Coins, weights, and measures..Imports from England, and their amount..Exports to England, and their amount..
..State of the Portuguese trade with the British Settlements in the East Indies..Import and export duties..Provisions and refreshments..Rio de la Plata..Maldenalda; description..Provisions and refreshments..Monte Video; description..Coins, weights and measures..Imports from England..Exports to England..
Amount of imports and exports..Trade of Spain with South America..
..Buenos Ayres; description.

As Buenos Ayres has been rendered memorable by the expedition of Lieutenant General Whitelocke, we transcribe part of that article.

* The capital of the viceroyalty of Paraguay, is situated on the south side of the Rio de la Plata; it is bounded on the east side by a small river, over which is a wooden bridge; the northern and western sides are bounded with gardens and orange groves, enclosed with strong hedges of the aloe and prickly pear. In the centre of the town, on the face next the river, stands the castle, a square work flanked with small bastions—the walls are about 15 feet high, it has a ditch on the face next the town only, over which is a draw-bridge. The great square, called by the Spaniards, *La Plaza*, separates the castle from the town, the south face of which contains a large church with a lofty dome and parapet. The streets are at right angles, and the houses in this neighbourhood are lofty, and surrounded with parapets above 4 feet high. At the N.W. angle of the town, and close to the river, is another extensive opening, called *La Plaza del Tauros* in which is erected *El Retiro*, the amphitheatre for the exhibition of bull-fights. In the neighbourhood and towards the river, are other large buildings of brick, serving as the chief depot for the military stores and ordnance of *Buenos Ayres*, various roads and streets lead into *Plaza del Tauros* but all at right angles with each other. To the eastward of the great square, and one street above it, is another open space, where are barracks; and nearly opposite these, the church and monastery of *St. Domingo*, the principal one in *Buenos Ayres*, except the cathedral. A very extensive building which has originally been intended as a

royal hospital, and called *Residentia*, is situated at the eastward of the town, over which are scattered other churches and squares of inferior note. Many of the public buildings are of white stone which is found in a small plain in the vicinity of the town. The length of the city is nearly two miles and its breadth about one, and it has a handsome appearance from the river. The river is very shallow; no vessel of any burthen can approach nearer than 8 or 10 miles; goods are therefore, conveyed to land in small crafts, which are built long, narrow, and high, yet so constructed as to draw but little water.

'*Buenos Ayres* derives its great wealth from being the intermediate depot for the valuable metals which are forwarded through it to Spain, as well as for the merchandize of the latter, for the use of most of her colonies, on the south side of the Equator. The trade between Spain and various parts of South America, was, previous to the rupture between that power and England, considerable; the duties collected on the Imports and Exports in 1788, amounted to £1,386,423. 14s. 0d. Since that period, it appears that the trade has considerably increased, but the extent cannot easily be ascertained.

'It is difficult to establish the exact quantity of gold and silver drawn by Spain from the mines in her American Colonies, as part of the metals is converted into current coin, and a part is also sent under the form of ingots, either clandestinely or legally, to the mother country. From authentic registers transmitted by the governors of the different provinces it appears, that from January 1st to December 31st there were coined in the royal Mints of

Mexico,	628,044	dollars in gold, and	17,435,644	in silver.
Lima,	821,168	do.	4,341,071	do.
Potosi,	299,846	do.	3,988,176	do.
St. Jago,	721,754	do.	146,132	do.

Gold 2,470,812

Silver 25,911,023.

'If to the above sum are added the Gold and Silver fabricated into various utensils for churches, convents and private persons, and the sums clandestinely exported by the merchants, without being coined, to avoid the King's duties, which are heavy, we may venture to estimate the annual produce of the mines at £9,000,000.'

CHAP. V. Cape of Good Hope—CHAP. VI. East coast of Africa—
CHAP. VII. Islands off east coast of Africa—CHAP. VIII. Red Sea
or Gulf of Arabia—CHAP. IX. Coast of Arabia to the Persian Gulph—
CHAP. X. Gulf of Persia—CHAP. XI. Coast of Persia, Scindy, and
Guzzerat—CHAP. XII. Coast of India from Cambay to Bombay.

The eight foregoing chapters are classed like those which precede them, and equally abound with important information.

CHAP. XIII.—*Bombay.*

Description..Coins..Remarks on Coins; their weight, alloy, &c...
 Weights..Measures..Commerce of Bombay and Surat..Com-
 merce with London..Extracts from the Act of Parliament autho-
 rising individuals trading to the British Settlements in India..
 Company's regulations relative to tonnage, furnished under the
 Act..European articles suitable to the Bombay market..Price
 Current of European articles..Commerce with Hamburg..
 Denmark..Lisbon..Madeira..Statement of commerce with foreign
 Europe..with the United States of America..with the northern
 parts of Guzerat..Surat and the adjacent villages..Bombay..
 Coast of Coromandel..of Malabar and Canara..Bengal..Ceylon..
 with British Asia..with the Gulf of Arabia..Gulf of Persia..
 Cashmere, &c...Cutch and Scindy..Bassein and villages..Goa,
 and the Coast of Concan..Pegu..Pulo Penang, and the eastward..
 Batavia..China..various places..with foreign Asia, &c...General
 recapitulation..Balance in favor of Bombay and Surat..
 price current of East India goods..Import and Export duties..
 Custom house regulations..Regulations respecting servants..
 Rates of pilotage..Light-house dues..Wharfage..Dock regula-
 tions and charges..Regulations relative to salutes and gunpow-
 der..Ship owner's allowances..Seamen's wages, &c...Company's
 regulations relative to cotton carried in their ships to China..
 Rates of freight from Bombay to China..List of merchants
 resident at Bombay..Rates of commission..Merchant vessels
 belonging to Bombay..Insurance Companies..Statement of losses
 1805 to 1808, by captures and sea risks..Company's Imports
 from England..Company's Exports to England..Revenues..
 Disbursements..Assets..Government securities..Bombay Army
 Pay allowances..Regulation relative to furlough and retirement..
 Rates of passage money to and from Europe..Regulation relative
 to baggage, outward and homeward bound..Regulations relative
 to clearing presents, wine, baggage, &c...List of established
 fees thereon..Extracts from the act of Parliament relative to
 objects of Natural History..Duties on various East India com-
 modities imported as baggage, presents, &c..List of manufactured
 and unmanufactured goods..List of prohibited goods..and laws
 relative thereto..Bombay Marine..Pay and allowances..Regu-
 lations relative to furlough, and retirement..Comparative rank of
 the officers of the Company's ships and Company's army..Rank
 of officers in the army and navy..Provisions and refreshments..
 Articles procurable at Bombay..Alkali..Anacardium..Animi
 Gum..Arrack..Arrangoes..Awl..Beetle Nut..Chaya root..
 Cocoa Nut..Coir..Coculus Indicus..Conessi Bark..Cornelians..
 Cotton Wool..Euphorbium..Fish Maws..Folium Indicum..
 Lignum Colubrinum..Mangoes..Nux Vomica..Peacock's sea-

thers . . Piece goods . . Putxcock . . Radiz Lopezcrina . . Sandal Wood
 . . Sesamum . . Shawls . . Squills . . Turbith . . Zedoary.

Bombay is an island, and the least considerable of the three presidencies in India. It is the seat of government for the western part of India. From north to south it measures almost 672 miles in length; and its extreme breadth, near the fort, is about one mile. The government is vested in a governor and three counsel under the controul of the Governor General of Bengal.

'The town of Bombay is near a mile long, from the Apollo gate to that of the Bazar, and about a quarter of a mile broad in the widest part, from the bunder, or custom-house, across the green to Church gate, which is nearly in the center of the walls, between the Apollo and Bazar gates. There are likewise two Marine gates, having commodious wharfs, and cranes built out from each, with a landing place at the dock head, for passengers only, under certain regulations. Between the two Marine gates is the castle, called Bombay Castle, a regular quadrangle, well built of strong, hard stone. In one of the bastions is a large tank, or reservoir for water. The fortifications are numerous, particularly towards the sea, and are so well constructed, the whole being encompassed by a broad and deep ditch, which can be flooded at pleasure, that it is now one of the strongest places the Company have in India. Besides which there are several forts and redoubts, the principal of which is Mahim, situated at the opposite extremity of the Island, so that, properly garrisoned, Bombay may bid defiance to any force that may be brought against it. In the center of the town, is a large open space called the Green, which, in the fine weather season, is covered with bales of cotton and other merchandize, entirely unprotected. Around the Green are many large, well built, and handsome houses; the government house and the church, which is an extremely neat, commodious, and airy building, are close to each other, on the left of the Church gate. On the right of the Church gate is the Bazar which is very crowded and populous, and where the native merchants principally reside. At its commencement stands the theatre—a neat handsome structure. This part of the town suffered much by a destructive fire, which broke out in February 1803, and destroyed nearly three fourths of the Bazar; together with the barracks, custom house, and many other public buildings, and property of immense value belonging to the native merchants. Many houses in the neighbourhood of the castle were battered down by the artillery, to stop the progress of the flames and preserve the magazine, or in all probability the whole town would have been destroyed. Since that period, this part of the town has been rebuilt, and the whole much improved, at a considerable expence to the Company. The dock yard is large and well

contrived, having naval stores of all kinds deposited in warehouses, together with large quantities of timber, for repairing and building ships, and forges for all kinds of smiths' work. The dry dock has scarce its equal for size or convenience: it has three divisions, and three pair of strong gates, so as to be capable of receiving three ships of the line at the same time. Near the dock is a convenient place to heave down several ships at once, which is done well and with great expedition. Here is also a rope walk, which for length, situation, and convenience, equals any in England, that, in the King's Yard at Portsmouth, only excepted, and like that, it has a covering to protect the workmen. Cables and all sorts of lesser cordage, both of hemp and coir, are manufactured here. Indeed, Bombay claims a distinguished rank among our foreign naval arsenals. It has always been famous for ship building, and formerly supplied Bengal, and other parts of India with shipping; and when any considerable repairs are wanting, they were obliged to proceed to Bombay to have them effected. Many fine ships have lately been built at Bengal, so that this branch of Commerce to Bombay is rather diminished. The Company in a Statement of their trade, ports, shipping &c published in 1668, speaking of Bombay, say—"That by means of their Isle of Bombay, they have brought thither the principal part of the trade of Surat, where from 4000 families, computed when the Company took possession of it, they are since increased to 50,000 families, all subject to the Company's laws. Since that period, the Island has continued increasing in wealth and consequence, and bids fair to be the most durable of the British possessions in India. Bombay has several adjacent dependencies, where there are light houses, barracks, &c. &c. &c."

The following is an account of the revenues of the East India Company at the presidency of Bombay, the charges and disbursements (exclusive of Commercial Charges) the interest payable on the debt, the deficiency in the revenue, and the amount of the debt in each year from 1792-3 to 1808-9, inclusive.

Years.	Revenues.	Charges.	Interest on Debt.	Total Charges and Interest.	Deficiency in Revenue.	Debts.
1792-3	£236,555	739,002	105,094	844,096	607,541	1,165,103
1793-4	294,736	786,691	120,054	906,745	612,099	887,682
1794-5	312,480	747,838	76,072	823,910	511,430	644,065
1795-6	277,596	734,152	48,905	783,057	505,461	769,142
1796-7	315,937	891,192	37,482	932,394	616,457	835,619
1797-8	338,189	950,511	47,658	998,169	659,980	800,075
1798-9	374,587	1,223,208	57,107	1,280,315	905,728	1,136,276
1799-0	415,663	1,494,811	82,371	1,577,182	1,161,519	1,497,134

Years.	Revenues.	Charges.	Interest on Debt.	Total Char- ges and In- terest.	Deficien- cy in Re- venue.	Debts.
1800-1	286,457	1,297,543	135,289	1,432,832	1,146,375	1,913,196
1801-2	305,992	1,204,759	210,066	1,414,825	1,108,833	2,405,729
1802-3	359,546	1,220,164	190,089	1,410,253	1,050,707	2,847,720
1803-4	558,648	1,652,631	242,852	1,895,483	1,336,835	3,382,276
1804-5	715,548	2,048,487	289,792	2,338,270	1,622,731	3,814,900
1805-6	846,486	2,455,744	305,552	2,761,296	1,914,810	3,704,210
1806-7	772,869	2,166,604	307,605	2,474,209	1,701,340	4,038,231
1807-8	770,691	2,059,106	313,036	2,372,142	1,601,451	4,432,262
1808-9	740,276	1,738,495	324,319	2,062,814	1,322,538	4,127,858

The following are the sources from whence the revenue proceeded for 1808-9.

<i>Revenues.</i>		<i>Charges.</i>	
Land	£427,033	Civil Charges	£147,428
Customs	161,959	Revenue	115,319
Farms and Licences ..	145,656	Military	1,246,279
Travancore Subsidy....	5,628	Marine	167,980
	£740,276	Building, and Forti- fication. }	61,489
			£1,738,495

Forming a deficiency in 17 years, of £24,400,350

In the above period the assets of the East India	
Company (as particularized), amounted to.....	£2,135,788
Their Debt, as per preceding table(*).....	4,127,858
Balance against the Company.....	£1,992,070

CHAP. XIV.—*Coast of Concan.*

This article, besides embracing the usual objects, contains a chronological detail of events from the year 1410 to 1810.

CHAP. XV.—*Coast of Canara.*—CHAP. XVI.—*Coast of Malabar.*
CHAP. XVIII.—*Ceylon.*

Columbo, the capital of the British possessions in this island, is the seat of government. The council is composed of the governor, the chief justice, the commander

of the forces, (who is also lieutenant governor) and the secretary to government. For some years after its capture it was wholly subject to the control of the East India Company; but from the beginning of 1802, it became a royal government, and is now regulated by his Majesty's ministers. This settlement is most remarkable for its spices, particularly cinnamon, but our possessions are extremely limited by the inveterate hatred and jealousies of the king of Kandy towards all European foreigners, attributable to the severities formally experienced by the natives, under the dominion of the Portuguese and Dutch settlers.

We do not distinctly know, and our author does not touch upon the subject, the sort of intercourse that, now, exists between the king of Kandy and our government; but we remember with horror, that about eleven years ago, an embassy departed from Columbo, laden with presents for the king of Kandy: that the Adigar, or minister of the king, received this embassy on his master's boundaries, and that great difficulty arose as to the ceremonial of presentation. The Portuguese and Dutch had been accustomed to prostrate themselves before the king, when admitted to his presence, and this humiliation was insisted upon by the Adigar for a length of time. The difficulty, was, notwithstanding, removed, and the king gave audience to our embassy. His Majesty is of a jet black complexion, and was habited in robes of the finest muslin, and loaded with jewels; his courtesy, however, was very short lived, for the natives rose upon our officers, and their suite, in the stillness of night, many of whom they murdered, and others were made prisoners.

In war, they are not much to be readed. A handful of Europeans will route a whole native army.

Columbo is in itself, of considerable strength, and well garrisoned, is capable of vigorous resistance. The fort is composed of seven bastions of different sizes, connected by intervening curtains, and defended by 300 pieces of heavy cannon. It measures $1\frac{1}{4}$ miles in circumference, and occupies a situation almost entirely insulated,—the sea encompassing two thirds of the works; and the remaining third is bounded by a vast lake. The internal appearance of the fort is extremely beautiful, the streets

being broad, straight, regularly planned, and intersecting each other at right angles. They are, moreover, shaded by double rows of trees. The houses are neatly built of stone, fronted with green virandas, on pavements raised several feet from the ground, before which are plots of grass and flowers. They have mostly only one floor, those with two, afford delightful prospects. The revenue and disbursements at Ceylon, from November 1795, to the 31st December 1801, the period it was under the controul of the Company, was as follow:

Revenue, Pag. 50,65,569=Disbursements, Pag. 47,37,867.

The history of the cinnamon tree, will be found very interesting. In 1795, on the capture of Ceylon by the English, the Company paid £180,000 to the captors, as the value of the cinnamon found at the different warehouses on the island. The pearl oyster banks, and the Ceylon stones, are described minutely, the latter are very curious; but of inferior quality.

CHAP. XVIII.—*Coast from Cape Comorin to Madras.*

This article is, also, enriched with a valuable historical chronology, as well as the rise and progress of the commerce between France and the East Indies, as between Denmark and the East Indies.

CHAP. XIX.—*Madras.*

Description... Coins... Weights... Measures... Commerce of Madras
 .. Commerce with London.. European Articles suitable to the Madras market.. Commerce with Denmark.. France.. Hamburgh.. Leghorn.. Lisbon.. Madeira.. Cadiz.. Statement of Commerce with Foreign Europe.. with the United States of America.. with the Coast of Malabar.. Northern parts of Guzzerat.. Surat and adjacent villages.. Bombay.. Northern Circars.. Northern division of the Carnatic.. Fort St. George.. Southern division of the Carnatic
 .. Tanjore.. Tinnevely and Ramnad.. Canara.. Cochin.. Bengal
 .. Ceylon.. Coast of Sumatra.. with British Asia.. with the Arabian Gulph.. Persian Gulph.. Cutch and Scindy.. Goa and the coast of Corcar.. Mahratta dominions.. Travancore.. Tranquebar
 .. Pegu.. Pulo Penang, and the eastward.. Malacca.. Batavia
 .. Manilla.. China.. various places.. with foreign Asia, &c..
 with all parts of the world.. Price Current of European and Asiatic commodities.. List of merchants.. Established rates of commission.. Vessels belonging to Madras.. Company's Imports from England.. Exports to England.. Recapitulation of Imports and

Exports .. Company's revenues and disbursements .. Assets ..
Government securities .. Company's army .. Pay and allowances ..
Civil service .. Extracts from Acts of Parliament relative thereto
.. Standing orders for salutes in the garrison .. Regulations relative
to the transmission of letters overland .. Provisions and refreshments
.. Articles procurable at Madras .. Diamonds .. Piece Goods,

‘Fort St. George is the principal settlement of the English (says our author at the beginning of vol. 2) in the Coromandel, and all the others are subordinate thereto. It is the seat of a governor and council, subject to the controul of the governor general. The Fort stands close to the sea side, and is one of the best in the possession of the British nation. And, although not so regular in its design as Fort William at Calcutta, yet, from the superior facility of relieving it by sea, and the natural advantages of the ground, it may, in the whole, be deemed at least equal to it. In the middle of the fort stands the original fortress. It is one hundred yards square, surrounded with battlements, having four bastions, and two gates. One to the westward where the main guard is kept; the other to the eastward facing the sea. This building is now converted into the offices of government, and the town residences of many of the Company's civil servants. To the southward stands the church, a spacious and neat building, at the back of which is the residence of the Governor; to the northward of the old Fort, stands the exchange, which is a most magnificent building: on the top is a light-house, which is essentially serviceable to ships at night, the light is ninety feet above the level of the sea at high water: it may be seen from the decks of the Company's ships above seventeen miles, and from their mast heads, nearly twenty-six miles. There are many large and handsome houses within the Fort; but the Company's merchant's and servants generally reside in the country. They repair to the Fort in the morning for the transaction of business, and return home in the afternoon. The Black Town is to the northward of the Port, separated by a spacious esplanade; it is nearly four miles in circumference, is surrounded with fortifications sufficiently strong to resist the attempts of cavalry to surprise and plunder it. Since the eruption of Hyder Ally in 1780, they have been considerably strengthened. This town is the residence of the Gentoo, Moorish, Armenian, and Portuguese merchants, and of such Europeans as do not hold situations under go-

vernment. The custom house and the houses of some of the merchants at Black town, are large and elegant buildings, these, with the pagodas and temples, have a grand appearance from the sea. The Choultry Plain is only one mile and a quarter from Fort St. George. The British trade commenced at Madras in 1640, with privilege to erect a fort for its protection. In 1671 our privileges were extended, conditionally, on payment of an annual revenue to the King of Golconda, of 1200 pagodas. In 1683 the East India Company raised Madras to the rank of a presidency, from which period, it became the seat of a Governor and council, subject always to the controul of the Governor General of India, from which period it has rapidly increased in its importance. In 1686 the Company obtained permission to erect a Mint. In 1687 it was made a corporation, and the population of Fort St. George, and the villages within the Company's bounds, was estimated at 300,000 souls.

At the commencement of the war with France in 1744, Madras had risen to an enviable height of opulence, but was miserably deficient in its fortifications, and its garrison was limited to scarcely 200 Europeans fit for duty. In this situation it was attacked by the French, under the command of M. de la Bourdonnais. Articles of capitulation were entered into and ratified, and the enemy finally evacuated his conquest, at a ransom of eleven lacs of pagodas, or £440,000 sterling. This treaty was, however, perfidiously broken by the French; the governor and council were taken to Pondicherry; the inhabitants were ordered to quit Madras;—they dispersed to different parts, and left the French in quiet possession, and they continued so till the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, which restored Madras to the English. In 1758, they were again attacked by the French; but Fort St. George was, now, in a situation to sustain a siege, which they did, with such persevering vigour, that, on the 17th February, 1759, the enemy raised the siege, after an unceasing bombardment of forty-two days. The defence of this siege is particularly honorable to the parties, and bears the historical record of having defeated an attack, the most strenuous and regular that was ever carried on in India.

The coast of Coromandel being without a secure port for shipping, and the articles produced being few in number, the commerce of Madras and its dependencies is of a more

limited nature than that of other presidencies. All sorts of Asiatic and European commodities, are, however, to be procured. The commerce may be arranged under the following heads.

1st. To and from London, exclusive of the East-India Company's trade, comprehending the investment of the commanders and officers of the Company's ships, the goods shipped by individuals under the tonnage act, and the cargoes of such country ships as are permitted to proceed from Madras to London, and to return with European goods.

2dly. To and from other parts of Europe, under the denomination of foreign Europe; comprising Denmark, France, Hamburgh, Leghorn, Lisbon, Madeira, Cadiz, &c. &c.

3dly. To and from the United States of America.

4thly. To and from British Asia, which comprehends the coast of Malabar—northern parts of Guzerat—Surat and adjacent villages—Bombay—northern Circars—northern division of Carnatic—Fort St. George—southern division of Carnatic—Tanjore—Tinnevely and Ramnad—coast of Sumatra—coast of Canara—Cochin—Bengal and Ceylon.

5thly. To and from foreign Asia, which comprehends the Arabian Gulph—Persian Gulph—Cutch and Scindy—Goa and the coast of Concan—Mahratta dominions—Travancore—Tranquebar—Pegu—Pulo Penang and the eastward—Malacca—Batavia—Manilla—China, and various places, including the Maldivé and Luccadive islands—the Mozambique—east coast of Africa—New South Wales—Cape of Good Hope—St. Helena, &c. The whole of the commerce of this presidency, commonly called the country trade, is in the hands of individuals; the Company never interfering except for the European market. Regular statements of imports and exports, into and from Madras, are here given in tables, enumerating the commerce of several progressive years, with detailed accounts of European commodities suitable to the Madras markets, and the prices current of European and other produce at Madras; together with government and custom house regulations, duties, &c.

The merchant vessels belonging to Madras, are, in general, small; not above four are of the burthen of 800 tons. Several of the smaller craft have been built at Coringa and Rangoon; and others at Bombay, Bengal, and Pegu.

The coast being without a secure port for shipping, they proceed to Bengal during the boisterous season. The following is an abstract of the merchandize and treasure imported into, and exported from, Madras and its dependencies, from 1802 to 1806, inclusive.

IMPORTS.

	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.
	<i>Sa. Rupees.</i>	<i>Sa. Rupees.</i>	<i>Sa. Rupees.</i>
Company from London . . .	79,54,232	50,39,928	130,94,160
Individuals do. . . .	57,40,925	34,26,329	91,66,354
Foreign Europe	20,34,545	37,47,510	57,82,055
United States of America . .	9,09,062	41,12,131	50,21,193
British Asia	487,40,860	88,98,539	576,39,399
Foreign Asia	108,84,953	125,06,485	233,91,438
Total Sicca Rupees . . .	762,63,677	378,30,922	1140,94,599

EXPORTS.

	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.
	<i>Sa. Rupees.</i>	<i>Sa. Rupees.</i>	<i>Sa. Rupees.</i>
Company from London . . .	217,90,600	—	217,90,600
Individuals do. . . .	63,38,540	992	63,39,532
Foreign Europe	4,03,228	—	4,03,228
United States of America . .	30,44,242	21,668	30,65,910
British Asia	401,70,156	29,03,008	430,73,164
Foreign Asia	220,85,999	6,46,739	227,32,738
Total Sicca Rupees . . .	938,32,765	35,72,407	974,05,172

Tables follow of the revenues and disbursements of Madras, from 1792-3 to 1808-9, inclusive; together with the sources whence the revenues proceeded in 1808-9, and the particulars which constituted the charges in that year. Tables of the Company's assets for the foregoing period, and the nature and description of government securities.

Under the head of articles procurable at Madras, with directions how to use them, our author enters into the history of the diamond, which is only to be found in the East Indies and in Brazil. They are distinguished, by jewellers, into oriental and occidental: the finest and hardest are always termed oriental, whether produced in the East

Indies or not. The value of a rough diamond, of two carats, is estimated, by rule, at £8; when wrought, at £32.

The largest diamond ever known in the world, is one belonging to the queen of Portugal, which was found in Brazil. It is still uncut: it weighs 1680 carats, and is estimated at the enormous value of £5,614,800 sterling. The famous diamond which adorns the sceptre of the emperor of Russia, under the eagle, at the top of it, weighs 779 carats, and is worth 4,854,728l., although it scarcely cost £150,000. This diamond was one of the eyes of an idol in the island of Seringham, in the Carnatic. A French grenadier, who had deserted from their Indian service, contrived so as to become one of the priests of the idol, from which he found the opportunity to steal its eye: he escaped from thence to Madras. A captain of a ship bought it for 20,000 rupees. Afterwards, a Jew gave about 18,000l. for it: at last, a Greek merchant offered it for sale at Amsterdam, in 1766, and the Russian prince Orloff made this acquisition for the empress of Russia. The next diamond is that of the Great Moghul, value 622,728l. The next, that of the queen of Portugal, value 369,800 guineas. The next, that of the emperor of Germany, formerly belonging to the grand duke of Tuscany, value 109,250 guineas. The Pitt diamond is valued at 208,333 guineas, and the Pigot diamond; which was disposed of, in 1800, by lottery, for 22,000l., though an extremely fine one, according to calculation, was sold beyond its value, as it only weighed 47½ carats.

CHAP. XX.—*Coast from Madras to Bengal.*

Pullicat . . . Armagon . . . Commerce of the Northern Division of the Carnatic with Madras . . . Gondegam . . . Mootapilly . . . Northern Circars: Description . . . Mausulipatam . . . Yanaon . . . Point Gordeware, or Godavery . . . Coringa . . . Jaggernautporam . . . Vizagapatam . . . Bimlipatam . . . Ganjam . . . Mainickpatam . . . Jaggernaut Pagodas . . . Black Pagoda . . . Point Palmiras . . . Commerce of the Coast of Coromandel with Bengal and Bombay . . . Balasore . . . Piple . . . Bengal . . . River Ganges . . . Burrampooter . . . Kedgerie . . . Diamond Harbour . . . Fulta . . . Barnagore . . . Serhampore . . . Bankibazar . . . Chandernagore . . . Chinsurah . . . Hughley . . . Bandel.

All these different heads are treated separately, and with extreme skill; the whole abounding with useful and pleasing information.

CHAP. XXI.—*Calcutta*,

Description . . . Coins . . . Weights and Measures . . . Commerce of Bengal . . . Commerce of Bengal with London . . . European articles suitable to the Bengal market . . . Remarks thereon . . . Commerce of all parts of British India with London . . . Of Bengal with Denmark . . . with Hamburg . . . with Lisbon . . . with Madeira . . . with Cadiz . . . with Foreign Europe . . . Commerce of all parts of British India with Foreign Europe . . . Commerce of Bengal with the United States of America . . . Commerce of all parts of British India with the United States of America . . . Remarks thereon . . . Commerce of Bengal with the Coast of Malabar . . . with the Coast of Coromandel . . . with the Island of Ceylon . . . with the Coast of Sumatra . . . with British Asia . . . Commerce of the Presidencies with British Asia . . . Commerce of Bengal with the Arabian and Persian Gulphs . . . with Pegu . . . with Pulo Penang, and places to the eastward . . . with Malacca . . . with Batavia . . . with Manilla . . . with China . . . with various places . . . with Foreign Asia . . . Commerce of all parts of British India with Foreign Asia . . . Commerce of Bengal with all parts of the world . . . Commerce of British India with all parts . . . Price-current of European and Asiatic commodities . . . Import and export duties . . . Custom-house regulations . . . Regulations for sending presents to Europe . . . Pilotage and port charges . . . Merchants resident at Calcutta . . . Established rates of commission . . . Merchant vessels belonging to Calcutta . . . Ship building . . . Insurance companies . . . Company's imports into Bengal from Europe . . . from Bengal to Europe . . . Recapitulation of imports and exports at Bengal . . . Company's imports into all parts of British India . . . Company's exports from all parts of British India . . . Recapitulation of imports and exports to and from all parts of India . . . Company's revenues and disbursements at Bengal . . . Assets at Bengal . . . Government securities at Bengal . . . Company's revenues and disbursements in all parts of British India . . . Assets in all parts of British India . . . Bengal army . . . Pay and allowances . . . Total of Company's army in all parts of India . . . Civil service . . . Allowances, &c. . . Provisions and refreshments . . . Articles procurable at Bengal . . . Annotta . . . Arrow-root . . . Borax . . . Castor-oil . . . Chillies . . . Cochineal . . . Ghee . . . Ginger . . . Hides . . . Horns . . . Indigo . . . Lacs, of kinds . . . Munjeet . . . Myrabolans . . . Oil of Roses . . . Opium . . . Piece goods . . . Rice . . . Rum . . . Safflower . . . Saltpetre . . . Silk, raw . . . Skins . . . Spikenard . . . Storax . . . Sugar . . . Sugar-candy . . . Talc . . . Tamarinds . . . Terra Japonica.

Calcutta, is the residence of the governor general, and our first presidency in India. Fort William, (continues our

author) is situated about a quarter of a mile below the town of Calcutta, which latter extends along the banks of the river about $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles. This fort, which was built by the English, soon after the battle of Plassey, makes a noble appearance from the river. Immense sums have been expended upon it. It bears an octagon form—five of the faces are regular,—the forms of the remaining three, which front the river, are after the fancy of the engineer. As no approach is to be feared on this side, and as the fort can only be attacked by war, (the river coming up to the glacis), it was merely necessary to present to vessels making a hostile attempt, a superiority of size, and to provide the means of discovering them at a distance, in order to disable them the moment they should arrive within cannon shot. These purposes have been attained by giving the citadel, towards the water, the form of a large salient angle, the faces of which enfilade the course of the river. From these faces the guns continue to bear upon the object, until it approaches very near the capital; but, then, they are flanked on each side by a front, parallel to the border of the river, which would fire with great effect on vessels lying with their broadsides opposite to it. This part is likewise defended by adjoining bastions, and counter-guard that covers them. The five regular fronts are on the land side, the bastions have all very salient orillons, behind which are retired circular flanks extremely spacious, and an inverse double flank at the height of the berme. This double flank would prove an excellent defence and would the better serve to retard the passages of the ditch, as from its form, it cannot be enfiladed. The orillon preserves it from the effect of ricochet shot, and it is not to be seen from any parallel. The berme opposite the curtain serves as a road to it, and contributes to the defence of the ditch, like a *fausse-bray*. The ditch is dry, with a cunette in the middle, which receives the water of the river, by means of two sluices that are commanded by the fort. The counter scarp and covered way are excellent; every curtain is covered with a large half moon, without flanks, bonnet, or redoubt: but the faces mount thirteen pieces of heavy artillery each, which give to the defence of these ravelins, a fire of twenty-six guns. The demi bastions, which terminate the five regular fronts on

each side, are covered by a counter-guard, of which the faces, like the half moons, are pierced with thirteen embrasures. These counter-guards are connected with two redoubts, constructed in the place of arms at the adjacent re-entering angles; the whole is faced and palisaded with care, and kept in admirable condition, and would make a vigorous defence against any army, however formidable. The advanced works are executed on an extensive scale; and the angles of the half moons being extremely acute, project a great way into the country, so as to be in the view of each other, beyond the flanked angle of the polygon, and take the trenches in the rear, at an early period of the approach. The fort contains only such houses as are necessary—such as the residence of the commandant; quarters for the officers and troops; and the arsenal. Exclusively of these, the interior of the fort is perfectly open, presenting to the view large grass plots, gravel walks occasionally planted with trees, piles of cannon, bombs, balls, and whatever can give to the place a grand, noble, and military appearance. Each gate has a house over it, destined for the residence of a major; these are large and commodious buildings.

Between the fort and the town, is an intervening level and space, called the esplanade. The government house and the Chowringhee road, forming a line of detached houses belonging to Europeans, make a most interesting and handsome appearance. The government house is situated on the western side of the esplanade, and is a large and beautiful fabric. Over the four arches or gates, leading to it, there are placed sphinxes, and various other emblematical figures. The king's, and the Company's arms adorn both the western and the eastern gates.

While describing the outward magnificence of the vice-royal residence, our mind naturally turns to its interior splendours. We recollect that much was invidiously said on the princely style in which Marquis Wellesley supported the dignities of his high offices; and we believe that my Lord Moira is actuated by an equal zeal to display the grandeur of the monarch whom he has the honor to represent; in truth, when we contemplate the almost magic luxury in which the native princes support their respective establishments, we give our cordial ap-

probation to the state pageantries of a governor general. An abstract of the Acts of Parliament regulating the government and supreme courts of judicature of Bengal is given. The governor general's salary is £25,000 per ann. that of the councillors individually, £10,000 per ann. Chronological events succeed, from 1633 to 1800, at which latter period, Marquis Wellesley gave the following statement of the Company's territories in India.

‘The British possessions in India now constitute one of the most extensive and populous empires in the world. The immediate administration of the government of the various provinces and nations, composing this empire, is chiefly confided to the European civil servants of the East India Company. Those provinces, namely, Bengal, Behar, Orixá, and Benares, the Company's Jaghire in the Carnatic. the Northern Circars, the Baramhal, and other districts ceded by the peace of Seringapatam in 1792, which are under the more immediate and direct administration of the civil servants of the Company, are acknowledged to form the most flourishing and opulent part of India, in which property, life, civil order, and religious liberty, are more secure, and the people enjoy a larger portion of the benefits of good government, than in any other country in this quarter of the globe.”

In 1808-9, the revenues of Bengal amounted to 9,816,458*l.* the charges and disbursements to 6,476,936*l.* leaving a surplus revenue of 3,339,472*l.* the debt at this presidency was at the same time 20,286,646*l.* The article on the silk trade is particularly deserving attention, it is detailed with considerable accuracy and perspicuity. The same with regard to the eastern sugars and rum; they form a comparative view with the interests of those articles the produce of our West India colonies.

Chap. XII.—*Bengal to the Malay Peninsula.*

Sunderbund . . . Chittagong . . . Aracan . . . Coins . . . Commerce . . .
 Cheduba . . . Coast of Ava . . . Negrais . . . Persaim . . . Diamond
 Island . . . Coast of Pegu . . . Rangoon . . . description . . . Coins,
 weights, and measures . . . Royal mandate for trade . . . Commerce
 with the British Settlements . . . Port charges . . . Import and ex-
 port duties . . . Dimensions and prices of teak timber . . . Provisions
 and refreshments . . . Articles procurable at Pegu . . . Earth oil . . .
 Emeralds . . . Garnets . . . Rubies . . . Morlaban . . . Tavay . . .
 Mergui . . . Tenakerim . . . Junkceylon . . . Coins . . . Weights and
 measures . . . Imports and exports . . . Duties . . . Provisions and
 refreshments . . . Andaman islands . . . Nicobar islands.

The description of the earth oil, or petroleum, which is

a liquid bituminous substance, is very curious. The oil is drawn pure from wells, of which there are one hundred and eighty in the neighbourhood of Rangoon. It is brought up in the liquid state, as used, without variation. The oil is of a dingy green, and odorous. The teak timber is used for ship building, and is nearly equal to our oak. We wonder an observation to this effect, should have escaped our intelligent author.

Chap. XIII.—*Malay Peninsula.*

Coast of Queda . . . Purlis . . . Queda . . . Coins, weights, and measures
Imports and exports . . . Duties . . . Provisions and refreshments . . .
Qualla Moorba . . . Pry River . . . Pulo Penang; description . . .
Coins, weights, and measures . . . Articles of import from Europe
. . . Company's imports from Europe . . . Commerce with the British
Settlements in India . . . Articles of import from the eastward
. . . Articles of export, and their prices . . . Import and export duties
. . . Company's revenues and disbursements . . . Provisions and
refreshments . . . Articles procurable at Prince of Wales' Island . . .
Agal Agal . . . Argus feathers . . . Balachong . . . Bean of St. Ignatius
. . . Beech de Mer . . . Benjamin . . . Birds' nests . . . Blackwood
. . . Cajeputa oil . . . Camphire . . . Camphire oil . . . Canes . . .
Clove-bark . . . Copper . . . Cosumba . . . Dammer . . . Ejoo . . .
Gold-dust . . . Gutta Gambir . . . Kemo shells . . . Lignum aloes . . .
Missoy bark . . . Rattans . . . Sago . . . Tin . . . Wax . . . Wood oil
. . . Pera . . . Salangore . . . Coins . . . Weights and measures . . .
Imports and exports . . . Provisions and refreshments . . . Malacca;
description . . . Coins, weights, and measures . . . Imports and exports
. . . Provisions and refreshments . . . Johore . . . Bintang . . . Coins,
weights, and measures . . . Imports and exports . . . Pahang . . . Coins
and weights . . . Imports and exports . . . Duties . . . Packhanga river
. . . Coins and weights . . . Imports and exports . . . Tringano . . . Coins,
weights, and measures . . . Imports and exports . . . Duties . . . Provisions
and refreshments . . . Redang Islands . . . Patany . . . Coins,
weights, and measures . . . Imports and exports . . . Calantan river . . .
Ligore.

Pulo Penang, or Prince of Wales' Island, is a settlement of importance. About five miles west from the fort, is an extraordinary mountain, on which signals are displayed for ships approaching the island, it is 2170 feet above the sea. Ship building is carried on to a considerable extent. A frigate has been built for his majesty's service. A ship of 1200 tons for the Company's Service, besides several ships for the country trade. In 1801, the native inhabitants amounted to 10,310. Many adventurers formerly flocked to

this island, and commerce has rapidly increased. It was formed into a government in 1803. It is ruled by a governor and three council, independently of the commandant, who makes a fourth at the board; but all persons filling offices are restricted by law from trade, agency, and from being planters for exportation. The grains of gold dust, here spoken of, are usually very small. Some are as large as the seed of an apple, but it is very rare to find a piece of pure gold, one ounce in weight. This subject is given in detail.

CHAP. XXIV.—Sumatra. CHAP. XXV. Java.—CHAP. XXVI.—The Eastern Islands. CHAP. XXVII.—Siam, Cochin, China, and Tonquin.

We regret that our limits compel us to pass over the interesting subjects which occupy the foregoing chapters.

CHAP. XXVIII.—*China;*

The natural aversion of the Chinese to, and the jealousy with which they view, all strangers, is a fact so generally known, that it would be tedious to dwell upon it. The Portuguese, we believe, were the first Europeans admitted by them to trade, and this indulgence, about the 16th century, was granted to them on the following account.

‘At this period, says our author, great depredations were committed on their coast by a dangerous band of pirates, who, having acquired a large force, made themselves masters of the port Macao, from which position, they were enabled not only to block up the port of Canton, but actually to besiege the city. The Mandarins, in this distress, had recourse to the Portuguese, whose ships then lay at the island of Sanciam. The Portuguese readily granted their assistance, and not only compelled the pirates to raise the siege, but, having pursued the enemy to Macao, they became masters of their position, and killed their chief in the attack. The Viceroy having made report to the Emperor, of this extraordinary service, he, out of gratitude, published an edict by which he ceded to the Portuguese, the island of Macao, with power to form a settlement; and they gladly accepted the boon. The settlement, however, since the expulsion of the Portuguese from Japan, has fallen to decay.

‘The city of Canton is defended towards the water by two high walls, on which canon are mounted; besides which, there are two strong castles built on two islands in the river. On the land side it is defended by a strong wall and three

forts. The city wall is about five miles in circumference ; and on the east side is encompassed by a broad and deep ditch. It has several gates, within side of each is a guard house. No European is permitted to enter.

‘The factories extend a considerable distance along the banks of the river, fronting the city, at about 100 yards, distance from the water’s side. They consist of large and handsome houses, each having a flag staff before it, on which is hoisted the flag of the nation to which it belongs ; the English factory, by far, surpasses all others, both in elegance and extent. It has a large verandah, reaching nearly down to the water’s edge, raised on handsome pillars, paved with square marble slabs, and commanding an extensive view. Adjoining to this verandah is the long room, where the Company’s table is kept for their surpercargoes, to which the commanders of their ships had formerly, free access, but at present they have factories of their own, and only visit the Company’s by invitation. The streets in the suburbs are, in general, very narrow and confined, but paved. The principal one is denominated China Street. It contains nothing but shops, exhibiting the productions of every part of the globe. The merchants are civil and attentive. There are no dwelling houses in the suburbs, at night the owners all retire into the city. The river is somewhat broader than the Thames at London Bridge ; and for the space of four or five miles opposite to Canton, is an extensive wooden town of large vessels and boats, stowed so closely together, that there is scarcely room for a large boat to pass. They are drawn up in ranks, leaving a narrow space for vessels to pass and repass. In these, vast numbers of families reside.

This subject is pursued, and conveys every information to the reader, particularly as to the gold trade, which is carried on here to a considerable extent. Great circumspection however appears to be necessary, to guard against fraud. The history of the teas will also be found, an article very important in its nature, and very ably defined.

This volume concludes with two chapters, the one relating to JAPAN ; the other, to the ISLE OF FRANCE, ST. HELENA, &c. Upon the whole, we have found infinite pleasure in the perusal of these volumes, which we heartily recommended to the public. If the language be not strictly elegant, it is minutely descriptive, and the work is the most pleasing and correct of any on the same subject we recollect to have met with.

ART. II.—*The Europeun in India*; from a collection of drawings by Charles Doyley, Esq. Engraved by I. H. Clark and C. Dubourg; a preface and copious descriptions, by Captain Thomas Williamson; accompanied with a Brief History of Ancient and Modern India, from the earliest periods of Antiquity to the termination of the late Mahratta War. By F. W. Blagdon, Esq. Edward Orme, &c. 1 volume. Folio. 2 parts. Price £5.5s. 1813.

To translate the attention from the preceding volumes on India affairs, to the present work, is like relieving the mind with a light flippant modern farce, after the sterling entertainment of a good play. This pic-nic volume, or rather the first part—is a whipt syllabub, compounded of pretty paper—pretty letter press—pretty *aqua-tinta* engravings—prettily coloured—and ALL for five guineas!

We are, notwithstanding, perfectly aware of its being compiled in a way truly congenial with the taste of fashionable readers, who love to know a *little* of every thing with as little trouble as possible; and we recommend it particularly to the consideration of the ingenious fabricators of 'Guides to Watering Places;' who, having failed to take the hint from the 'Peacock's Ball'—'Mother Hubbard'—and a variety of other esteemed trifles, richly ornamented with plates, may now learn the wisdom of embellishing their next Margate Guide with descriptive drawings of the humours of a hoy---a public breakfast at Dandelion—a donkey promenade on the sands—or of city nobility parading the fort, embellishing the ball room—or rising from the flood, like modern Venus's—They need not hesitate as to the price they should affix to so accomplished a work.

The preface modestly begins thus:

'The numerous and highly respectable class of readers who thirst for knowledge, will not, I flatter myself, find this work unworthy their attention.'

It is true, that persons who come from India, are usually accompanied with a heavy purse. To such, however, this book could not be useful; and although a youth about to depart to that country, might be pleased with the information it contains, to rule his conduct, on his arrival, it is doubtful whether he would be disposed to gratify himself at so enormous an expence. Strangers

are always liable to imposition, wherever they may present themselves; and, as this elucidation of Indian customs and manners is intended to guard those travelling to Asia, the object is useful.

We find an anecdote, almost at the beginning, on which the author seems to have erected his whole fabric.

‘A gentleman, who, about seven years ago, proceeded to Bengal in a very high station, and who had been in the habit of consulting his physician very often, thought it necessary, ere he ventured on board a ship, to collect the opinions of all his medical friends, as to the plan he must follow in respect to diet, &c. On arriving in India, accordingly, he was furnished with a multitude of recipes, rules for regimen, and all that could be thought of, on the occasion. When the gentleman arrived in India, he submitted the whole to a very clever physician, and asked his opinion, regarding their merits. Judge what must have been the gentleman's surprize, on hearing from the Doctor, that nine in ten of the prescriptions would infallibly have sent him to Kingdom Come. At length, the gentleman produced a short note from a friend, who, in short terms advised him strongly—‘to do as he should find the Old Inhabitants do, and to burn all the instructions he had, at much expence, attained from the faculty in England.’ This homely piece of good sense was approved by the doctor; and being followed, the gentleman not only banished his fears in regard to the climate, but is now returning to Europe in far better health, than he could boast of when he left it.’

This work consists of twenty plates. 1st. An European gentleman with his *moonshee*, or native professor of language. 2d. A gentleman in his private office, attended by his *dustoree*, or native office keeper. 3d. A gentleman in a public office, attended by the *crannies* or native clerks. 4th. A gentleman dressing, attended by his head bearer, and other servants. 5th. A gentleman attended by his *hajaum*, or native barber. 6th. A gentleman delivering a letter to a *soontah burdar*, or silver bâton bearer. 7th. A gentleman's *ketmutgars*, or table servants bringing in dinner. 8th. An English family at table, under a *punkah* or fan, kept in motion by a *khelassy*. 9th. A gentleman with his *sircar*, or money servant. 10th. A gentleman with his *hookah-burdar*, or pipe bearer. 11th. A *saumpareeah*, or snake catcher, exhibiting snakes before Europeans. 12th. Marquis Wellesley's *dundy*, or boatman, in his livery. 13th. An European Lady giving instructions to her *durzee*, or native tailor. 14th. A dan-

cing woman of Bengal, exhibiting before a European family. 15th. A dancing woman of Lucknow, exhibiting as before. 16th. An European Lady attended by a servant using a hand *punkah* or fan. 17th. An European Lady and her family attended by an *ayah*, or nurse. 18th. *Kaut pootlies*, or puppets, exhibited by native jugglers, for the amusement of European children. 19th. A native gentleman smoking a *goorgoory*, or *hookah*, in his private apartments, attended by his dancing girls. 20th. Marquis Wellesley and his suite, at the Nabob of Oude's breakfast table, viewing an Elephant fight.

These are the important subjects to which all persons going to India, are invited to be intimate, as inseparables from their future welfare. Let us transcribe the letter press to the first plate, to give the author all his merit in his own words.—

Ex pede Herculem!

'As a knowledge of the languages of the east, [*we thought the Company had Colleges for the prosecution of Indian languages*] is certainly a primary object with such gentlemen as resort to India, in the East India Company's Service, or with the intention to reside there, for the purpose of trading, &c. A description of the *Moonshee*, or Linguist, may, with propriety, precede the other more menial occupations. This profession is not invariably filled by the Mussulmans though there are very few instances of *Hindoos* being *Moonshees*. Nor is it an hereditary occupation, or confined to any particular sect, or tribe, among the former. *Moonshees*, in general, take great care that their sons become capable of teaching: but there are numerous competitors for this distinguished employ, among those whose parents have the means of educating them in a suitable manner. This, indeed, requires but little expence, and but a mere trifle of assiduity. The learning of the generality of *Moonshees* is extremely confined. Writing a fair hand, an acquaintance with the provincial anomalies, and a readiness at reading the multiplicity of manuscripts which are consigned to them for explanation, and which are sometimes as difficult to decypher as many of our nearly illegible English writings; added to a copious string of quotations from the Koran, and a general acquaintance with the very few books extant in India, in the Persian language, mostly the lives of great men, or the poems of Hafiz, &c. may be said to comprise the requisites for being classed among the sages of the east! As to science, it is not only neglected but despised. The *Moonshee* attends daily from breakfast to dinner time; and eventually during the evening also; his wages vary according to the rank or zeal of his

master—from ten to forty, or forty five, rupees monthly. He is considered as the head of the servants, having much respect paid him by the menials in general, and being permitted, by many of the more liberal students, to enter the apartments without taking off his shoes; an omission, for which, the other servants would be severely punished, it implying the greatest contempt and disrespect. As to the swarms of *Moonshees*, who are retained in all the public departments, their wages are generally very low. Their dress is proportionably neglected, and they are by no means either so respectable, or so well informed. Their being thoroughly acquainted with the respective designations of the persons they are to address (a matter of wondrous jealousy among the natives, those of rank in particular, whose titles often occupy nine tenths of a long manuscript) and a free hand together with a quick reading are their best recommendations. The *Moonshee* attached to a gentleman studying the languages, generally, has a boy to attend him; who, besides carrying his bundle, of writing apparatus, holds the umbrella over his master on his way to and from home. Many of these boys by application, and the indulgence of their masters, pick up a smattering of the Persian language, and learn to read and write sufficiently to be, in time, employed in offices; some have been known to raise themselves into very comfortable and distinguished situations.

With this specimen of the general utility of this work, we leave the inquisitive to balance its essential value against it to five guineas; and if the sale be rapid, we trust John Bull will no longer question the validity of paper currency.

To the second part—‘A brief history of ancient and modern India.’—

As a chronological arrangement of events from the earliest antiquity to the present period, Mr. Blagdon's one hundred and forty nine pages will be read with pleasure; but if we are to look for the dignified and awful contemplation, which he tells us, the ancient and modern history of the most celebrated country in the world cannot fail to inspire, we fear we must seek other sources. So far, however, as this memoir may enable those unacquainted with Asiatic affairs, to form a correct outline of that immense and interesting territory, which has so often been the scene of British bravery, it deserves every attention from the care with which it is compiled, and the simple beauties of the language in which it is clothed. The wars of Hyder Ally and Tippoo, occupy an interesting portion of this memoir. We are told that by the preliminary treaty, signed on

the 22d February 1792, between Lord Cornwallis—then governor General—and Tippoo Sultaun, one half of the dominions, in the possession of Tippoo, at the commencement of the war, was ceded to the allies, (the British, the Peishwa and the Nizam.) But the duplicity and perfidy of Tippoo, being notorious, this treaty was guaranteed, on the part of the Sultaun, by his second and third son, who were delivered as hostages to the governor general. The districts thus ceded to the allies were found to be productive of the following annual revenue in Pagodas, viz.

To the East India Company.....	13,16,765,
To the Nabob Asoph Jah Behauder.....	13,16,666,
To the Ronah Punditt Perdhaun Behauder.....	13,16,666,

‘ All these engagements were strictly fulfilled; but in 1793 the ambition and treachery of the Sultaun again became manifest; he having, as was afterwards ascertained, planned as long since as 1792, a project for the complete extirpation of the English from India, as well as for the subversion of the Mahrattas and other Hindoo states, who had long regarded his ambitious career with an eye of jealous suspicion. With this view he engaged the assistance of the French in India, who had always come forward with alacrity, whenever they could anticipate an opportunity of injuring the vital interests of the British Empire. His projects however, were most happily defeated by the exertions of Lord Mornington—now Marquis Wellesley—the Governor General—and the subsequent events of that war, which are too fresh in the memory of Englishmen to need detail, or scarcely to require repetition, to confirm additional glory upon the British arms.

We perfectly agree with Mr. Blagdon, that the splendid results of this, and the subsequent war, with the Mahrattas, must be alive in the mind of every Englishman; but we differ most materially with him, as to his position, that events so glorious to the British interests, need no repetition.—Events that placed the whole kingdom of the Mysore at the disposal of the British Government and carried our arms to Delhi, the capital of the Great Mogul, are not to be thus lightly noticed by any one professing himself to be a historian. We, therefore, with patriotic pride, take leave to subjoin a summary of Marquis Wellesley's administration, retracing the original objects of his policy, and pursuing his grand career to its most glorious consummation.

In the year 1763, the Nabob Sujah-ud-Dowlah formed the scheme of driving the English from Hindustan, and assumed the title and dignities of a prince over the presumed sovereignty of Oude.

Oude, at that time, however, was merely a Subah, or province of the Moghul empire, which, according to the constitution of that empire, was governed by an officer called a Subahdar, or governor, who also possessed the title of nabob. Sujah-ud-Dowlah was so nominated by his sovereign, the Moghul emperor, whom he represented, and from whom he derived all his consequence and power. But, taking advantage of the authority with which he was invested; and of the weakness to which the power of his master was, at that time, reduced, he appropriated to himself the revenues of Oude, paying an annual tribute to the royal treasury, and, ultimately, threw off his dependance on his sovereign, in opposition to whose positive orders, he commenced a spirited war against the English. The result of this war, was, the entire conquest of Oude by the English, and the surrender of Sujah-ud-Dowlah, who threw himself on their mercy. The English, having thus acquired the unquestionable right of disposing of Oude, in any manner they thought most conducive to their own interests, restored Sujah-ud-Dowlah to the government of that province, under the stipulations of a compact, made with the concurrence, and executed under the seal, of the Moghul emperor.

By virtue of this compact, the province of Oude was placed under the entire protection of the English, and the nabob was bound to defray the expenses of such protection : so that, in effect, the nabob was, thereby, made completely dependant on the military power, and subject to the political authority of the English. By a variety of subsequent covenants, and by various other transactions, between the English and the nabob, their authority over him was progressively increased, insomuch, that, throughout all India, the English dominions and the province of Oude, were considered as forming one state ; and it became, essentially, a fief of the English government. On this principle, marquis Cornwallis found himself justified in exercising a direct and positive control over the government of Oude, as an absolute essential, not only to the prosperity of that province, but to the security of our dominions in Hindustan. My lord Teignmouth pursued the same conduct, by enforcing

a plan of reform, as suggested by the marquis Cornwallis, for the domestic government of Oude, and by instructing the nabob's ministers that they were responsible to the English government, for restoring Oude to a flourishing condition. His lordship, indeed, on two memorable occasions, found it necessary to put in actual force the paramount authority of the English, over the government of Oude—1st, by disposing of the Rohilla Jagheer, contrary to the wishes of the nabob:—2dly, by deposing Vizier Alli, and by placing Saadut Alli in that station. My lord Teignmouth, then, concluded a treaty with Saadut Alli, whom he had thus raised to the nabobship, whereby that entire political and military power which the English had always exercised over this dependant fief, was fully ratified, by positive and express stipulations; and the nabob was bound to pay the English government, out of the revenues of Oude, the annual sum of nine hundred and twelve thousand pounds, in order to support the expense of that decided power, which was thus definitively established. Thus, then, it becomes a decided fact, that, progressively, up to the conclusion of the treaty of 1798, Oude was a dependant fief, and the nabob a vassal to the English government.

We have thus prefaced an outline of the existing relationship of Oude with the British government, to show that the right of paramount authority which marquis Wellesley enforced, as governor general of India, was founded on the established principles of universal justice: that there had existed, for a long period of time, a general necessity for exercising this right, in order to effect a radical reform in the internal government of the country: that, superadded to this general necessity, there was, at the commencement of the noble Marquis's administration, a particular political necessity, which rendered the immediate exercise of this authority indispensable to the security of the British dominions in Hindustan. And we are the more earnest to impress these incontrovertible facts on the minds of our readers, as marquis Wellesley, at his return from his enlightened and comprehensive system of political administration, by which he secured our dominions in Hindustan, found accusers in the House of Commons, who, on presumed principles of general equity, contended, that Oude was an independent principality, under the government of a sovereign, whose title was Nabob Vizier, and that the treaty of 1798 vested a

degree of authority in the nabob of Oude, which precluded the interference, and rendered him independent of, the control of the British government. But it was in vain that these profound logicians contended, that whatever virtual rights the company might have possessed over the government of Oude, from the general nature and spirit of their connection with it, still, under the stipulations of the treaty of 1798, no rights could be justly exercised, except such as those stipulations expressly authorized. There is, notwithstanding, one important consideration, which amply refutes such sophistry of argument; namely, that there are certain rights inherent in the civil constitution of mankind, which, unless covenants expressly restrain, they are ever understood to recognize. Every man has a right to demand reparation for an injury which his interests are sustaining, through the negligence or misconduct of any person with whom he may have contracted an engagement, in which those interests are essentially involved. And so far from his contract precluding him from insisting on adequate reparation, unless it expressly contain such a power, it becomes forfeited by the party guilty of the misconduct or negligence, from the very circumstance of those interests having thereby suffered, which it was designed to protect.

According to the statutes of England, a tenant shall not only lose and forfeit the place wherein the waste has been committed, but also treble damages. By the Mohammedan law, the possessor of an estate for life, is liable to the imprisonment of his person, as well as to the forfeiture of that estate, if by his misconduct he injures the property committed to his trust.

The equity of this rule will not, therefore, be questioned by Englishmen, who see it exercised every day in Westminster-hall; much less will it be objected to by the Mussulmans of India, who know it to have been promulgated by the Arabian legislators, and sanctioned by the most renowned of their Moghul princes, whose joint authority, in all legal affairs, they would account it sacrilege to impeach.

If then, the equity of these rules of civil wisdom, in dispensing justice to individuals in the common transactions of life, be admitted—with how much greater force must it be felt, when applied to the affairs of nations; in which the interests and happiness of millions are concerned?

Hence, then, the British government possessed that just and indisputable right, not merely of coercive interference in the domestic affairs of its dependant fief—the province of Oude;—but that, likewise, of compelling its vassal—the Nabob—to surrender back that province, which, according to the established rules of equity, sanctioned by those laws which he is bound to obey, he had for ever forfeited; in consequence of his having, either through contumacy or omission, made no endeavour whatever, to remedy that pernicious system of administration, which himself, and his predecessors, had been so often instructed to reform. A system which had produced a deplorable, and extending waste;—a misgovernment that was dilapidating the revenues, impoverishing the people, and rapidly reducing the country to a state of wretchedness, anarchy, and despair, calculated at once, to invite the hostility of our enemies, and to render it a source of endless distress to ourselves. And all these glaring evils were partly attributable to the natural defects in the Nabob's system of government; and partly to the rapaciousness, corruption, and depravity, which prevailed in all its different departments.

Such was the posture of affairs, at the commencement of Marquis Wellesley's administration, and his lordship's luminous and comprehensive mind suggested the particular political necessity, which rendered the immediate demand of reparation from the Nabob indispensable to the security, not only of this dependancy, but of the whole of the British dominions in Hindustan.

To establish this assertion, we must speak of the geography of this dependancy, which embraces some of the most important interests of our Indian empire, in its foreign relations. Situated between our own territories and the Mahratta dominions in Upper Hindustan, the province of Oude forms the medium of mutual intercourse in peace, and the principal scene of our operations in war. That part of Oude which borders on the English territory, is separated from the Mahratta dominions by the river Jumnah, and from thence stretches across to the forests of Bhotwal, and the lofty mountains of Gorkah, which bound it on the N. E. but the N. W. quarter of Oude is not protected from the Mahrattas by any natural barrier. Scindeah having possessed himself of

the provinces of Agra and Delhi, and of the capital and person of the Moghul emperor, occupied a large extent of country on the Oude side of the river Jumnah, which included the upper part of the Duab, where the French establishment, retained in his service, was fixed.

In this quarter, therefore, there was an open frontier between the dominions of Oude, and the French Mah-ratta establishment.

This establishment consisted of 40,000 disciplined native troops, 300 European officers, and an artillery amounting to 280 pieces of cannon, appointed and served under the direction of skilful French engineers. Thus formidable in itself, it derived additional strength from its position and local interests. It was maintained by military and personal grants of lands, which it was stationed to defend. Hence, its interests were identified with the soil; and were directed by Monsieur Perron, an officer of consummate ability, especially nominated from France to promote the views of that kingdom.

Perron thus situated, was impelled by the strongest principles of self interest--of ambition--and of patriotism. He became the irreconcilable enemy of the English government; and was, at the particular period under review, carrying on a secret correspondence with the government of the Isle of France, with a view to the adoption of measures for supplying other French military establishments in the service of native princes, as well as to augment his own army with additional officers of experience and skill. Every artful and political engine was at work, to instil into the minds of the natives, by all the ingenuities of falsehood, the bitterest sentiments of hatred for the English government, and to impress them with the sentiment, that their sole chance of deliverance from its tyranny, rested on the support they should give to the French arms, who were represented as the zealous advocates and firm supporters of the Emperor;--that they were his servants, and acting under his authority, for the sole view of re-establishing the power, and advancing the glory of the Moghul empire.

During the few months that the vizier Alli held the nabobship of Oude, he had studiously and strenuously sought the favour of the profligate and mutinous soldiery, by the most profuse bounty, and by granting them

every sort of indulgence calculated to gratify their licentious passions. After his deposition, a more general disaffection was produced, by the malignant zeal, unremitting stratagems, and unextinguishable animosity by which he sought to excite a general insurrection against the English, in the hope of recovering his lost power. It at length became necessary to order the removal of this dangerous man to Calcutta, but, as such a step would defeat all his projects, he resolved not to submit; and, in a fit of vindictive despair, he cruelly murdered, in cold blood, Mr. Cherry the resident, and several other English gentlemen, at Benares. He then made his escape with a few followers, and took refuge in the forests of Bhotwal. There he was soon joined by some rebellious Zemindars, and by a whole battalion of the Nabob's troops which had been sent against him. In the course of two months, his retinue amounted to 9,000 strong. With this powerful and desperate band of ruffians, he entered the plains of Goorakpoor, which form the eastern districts of Oude; from whence, by his incessant depredations, no less than by the interest he personally excited among the disaffected, he kept the whole province in a state of continual agitation and alarm.

While Oude was thus menaced by all those circumstances of contiguous external danger, and pregnant with those complicated domestic evils which were fast destroying the source by which alone that danger could be effectually repelled, the British government received positive intelligence of the approach of Zemaun Shah, king of Cabul, with a powerful army, for the avowed purpose of carrying into execution his long meditated design of arresting the dominions of Oude from the authority of the English.

Advices were, at the same time, received by Marquis Wellesley, from the Court of Directors, apprising him of Buonaparte's expedition to Egypt, and of India being the ultimate object of his destination. At this critical conjuncture, when it was imperiously necessary to call forth the whole resources of India, in his own defence, and at the same moment to assemble a powerful army in the Carnatic to oppose the designs of Tippoo Sultaun, and another to resist the invasion of Zemaun Shah—what, in a military point of view, was the actual state of that,

our frontier province in Hindustan, the declared object of our enemy's attack?

With regard to the state and disposition of the nabob of Oude's troops, at this perilous moment, we shall subjoin extracts from the letter of Sir James Craig to Marquis Wellesley, as a document written on the spot, and at the time, and because it furnished the noble Marquis with facts on which he subsequently founded his grand and comprehensive arrangements.

'I know not what to say with respect to the nabob's troops, I would be content, that they should be useless; but I dread their being dangerous. Unless some step is taken with regard to them, I should be almost as unwilling to leave them behind me, as I should be to leave a fortress to the enemy. The nabob is highly unpopular, and of all his subjects, I believe he would least expect attachment from his army. Your lordship judges most rightly, that in its present shape, no sort of service can be expected from the nabob's army; and I am confident, that without a total change in the policy of the government, and in the manners of the people, there exists no possible means by which it can be rendered such as to merit the smallest degree of confidence. The nabob has repeatedly declared to me, that we must not reckon on deriving the smallest assistance from his troops. He said, their arms, in general, were scarcely serviceable;—that there was no subordination amongst them; and that no reliance was to be placed in their fidelity.'

By the enlarged and dexterous policy, however, of dispatching an embassy to the king of Persia, a division was effected against Zemaun Shah, in that quarter, which, together with some domestic dissensions, compelled him to retreat from Hindustan, while the same consummate policy, by an effort of vigor and promptitude rarely equalled, anticipated the hostility of Tippo Suldaun, and, in a few months, completely subdued his power. In Oude, the party of the Vizier Alli was routed and dispersed.

But these important successes, although they greatly lessened the magnitude of the general danger, and averted the immediate invasion of Oude, yet, they, in no manner, diminished the force of that imperious necessity, which other political circumstances, connected with the state of Oude, had created, for insisting on the nabob making such immediate reparations, as the dangerous vices of his government,

the increasing waste which the country was suffering, and his own continued neglect, did, in strict justice, authorize us to demand.

The archives of Seringapatam, at the fall of Tippoo Sultaun, disclosed the whole details of the vast plan which had been formed for the annihilation of the English power in the east. From these it was evident, that almost all the French officers in the service of native princes, had either been directly concerned in that scheme, or had secretly encouraged it. It also appeared, that Tippoo Sultaun had obtained a promise of neutrality from Scindeah, in the event of German Shah invading India, and that he had also engaged him to exert his influence in the councils of the Peishwa, to detach that prince from the British alliance.

In November, 1801, a treaty was eventually concluded with the nabob of Oude, through the spirited good sense, and judicious moderation of Mr. Henry Wellesley, who was private and confidential secretary to his brother, after an evasive delay of nine months on the part of the nabob.

By this treaty, the dependancy of Oude was considerably narrowed in its extent, but improved in its condition. Our dependancy, in that quarter, is now surrounded by provinces, flourishing under the benignant influence of the British system, and protected, not alone by the powerful valour, but by the unsullied and wide spreading fame of our arms.

Dispatches relating this auspicious conclusion, were sent to the Court of Directors by marquis Wellesley, and received by them in May, 1802; and the select committee, on the 19th November, 1803, addressed the governor-general in council, thus :—

‘ Having taken into our consideration the treaty lately concluded between the Governor General and the Nabob Vizier, we have now to signify our approbation of the provisions of that treaty. We consider the stipulations therein contained, as calculated to improve and secure the interests of the Vizier, as well as those of the Company, and to provide more effectually, hereafter, for the good government and prosperity of Oude, and consequently, for the happiness of its native inhabitants.’

The salutary effects arising from this policy, was gloriously manifested by the result of the Mahratta war of 1803. The districts in Oude, flourishing under the British government, supplied the most ample and ready resources to that victo-

rious army, which ultimately vanquished and crushed the French Mahratta establishment; and, thereby, destroyed the instrument of hostility on which the cherished hopes of France had, for some years, been placed, and by which she had sought, with ambitious solicitude, to undermine, and, finally, to overthrow the mighty fabric of our Indian empire.

In the subversion of that politic project of France, marquis Wellesley derived the means of extending and fortifying our line of defence in northern Hindustan, not only by occupying the course of the river Jumnah, with the provinces of Delhi and Agra through which it flows, but also by forming alliances with the small Hindu principalities, inhabited by that martial and generous race, the Rhatore Rajpoots, who had solicited our protection against the merciless ravages of Holkar.

By the occupation of those provinces, we carried our frontier in one broad unbroken line, across that part of the country through which, alone, an invading army from the west of Asia, can penetrate into our dominions; and by those alliances, we engaged the attachment of a people, characterized by their fidelity no less than by their courage, who possess that tract of country, which extends from the pathless desert of Moultan, to the province of Agra on the west, and to the river Seraswatee on the north; so that an invading enemy could not form a junction with Holkar or Scindeah, whose dominions lie to the south of that tract, without passing through it.

All these objects Marquis Wellesley contemplated with the mind of a statesman, that penetrated into the vast designs of a wily enemy; and the most confident and intrepid politician must be powerfully struck with the comprehensive wisdom of that policy, which has not only defeated impending dangers, but prepared ample means for resisting any dangers to come. Finally, view all the administration of the marquis Wellesley with the eye of reason, take it in all its bearings, contemplate it with all its important results, and you will see enlightened forethought, unimpeachable integrity, and sound policy, gloriously pervading the whole of his great work.

We cannot close without offering to the heroes of Assaye and Laswarree, as well as to the other British officers and men entrusted with the execution of those military plans,

the tribute so deservedly due to their judgment, bravery, and incessant activity, under all the toils and privations incident to progressive operations in a far distant enemy's country. Their skill, exertion, and perseverance, astonished all those most intimately acquainted with Indian affairs, and will ornament the history of that country, with a proud and memorable record.

ART. III.—*A View of the Pleasures arising from a Love of Books.*
1 vol. 12mo. pp. 268. Longman and Co. 1814.

THIS little volume of letters is the production of the Rev. Edward Mangin, M. A. who may probably be known to many of our readers, as the author of 'An Essay on Light Reading,' &c. We are told, in a short preface, that these letters,

'equally calculated to amuse and to improve the mind,'

are collected from the author's correspondence with a lady, whose proper pride induced her to request him, when writing to her, so far to compliment her mind, as to suppose it capable of relishing subjects of rather a higher order than the state of the weather, and the markets; or the misdemeanors, quarrels, and rash marriages of her neighbours. He therefore entered into a light and familiar inquiry into the pleasures communicated by books to the lovers of reading; and, in order to shew that females are not to be treated as

'demi-fools and playthings, or as creatures of foibles, and passions, and prejudices, formed for no other end than to be endured, pitied, and forgiven,'

he freed his collection from whatever might be found irrelevant, and presented it as a homage to the female world.

It would appear, that the author has prepared to draw a sort of parallel between the love of books and the love of human beings; for he says,

'in reality, were we carefully to investigate our feelings, it would be found, that, in a chosen book, as in a lover or a mistress, there abides a secret something, by which the affections are caught;'

and he contends, that the former, like the latter, is capable of purifying the mind, and of ennobling the character; but,

as love gives an ideal colouring to objects, we often find persons in life loving each other, not for attributes we really possess, but for charms we borrow from each other's partiality. This conclusion will equally affect a love of books: it is the mind of the reader, frequently, rather than the merits of a work, which stamps the generality of literary productions with a presumed value. And this fact is, at least, admitted by our author, when he says—

‘ You know how highly I esteem your taste and judgment ; I therefore believe you will smile (as indeed I myself do, at the recollection) when I tell you, that, at an early period of life, the farrago of bombast called Ossian’s Poems, served me as an object of sublimity ;—and the versifiers, the mewlings, of the Dellacruscan school, were then, in my mind, the choicest examples of the sweet and tender in poetry. That this could ever have been the fact, seems to me now most astonishing : it is nevertheless perfectly true, but the *mania* did not last long ; and a good while before the termination of the last century, those delectable effusions, and others of their class, had become objects of my contempt.

‘ We must not, however, be too presumptuous, nor plume ourselves overmuch on our refinement ; for probably some such remark as has just escaped me, may be made by posterity on *our* times. There are fashions in literary feelings, as in clothing ; and the rancour of some reviewers and satirists, whose grandfathers are yet unborn, may be poured forth on the *literati* of this day, for having perused with rapture the ‘ Stranger in Ireland,’ ‘ Travels in Albania,’ &c. It does, I allow, appear incredible, that such a change should ever occur—that a race of writers and readers should hereafter arise in England, to excel *our* writers and readers, and sneer irrelevantly at the prices at which we purchase, and the acclamations with which we greet works NOW ESTEEMED FIT SUBJECTS OF NATIONAL PRIDE ! and it is possible, that posterity may deride our liking for what we conceive to be IMPERISHABLE WORKS ; for those performances, in which we imagine no future critic can detect a fault, NOR HUMAN GENIUS EVER BE ABLE TO EXCEL !!!’

Bravo, good Mr. Mangin ! a private correspondence, indeed, may sanction a discussion so void of taste and judgment ; but that opinions so monstrous should caricature any publication, and that the author should be a master of arts, is scarcely credible.

Of Milton, Steele, Thomson, Goldsmith, Beattie, and a few more, he affects to speak with reverence : he says, there is an “ *anti-putrescent* ” quality in their works, which resists

decay, and ensures their fame. Speaking of novels, he selects the works of Richardson, concluding with this *sage* remark :

‘ Alas ! what becomes of the precept the author would inculcate, when we remember, that the goodly show is but an air-drawn vision ; and that the characters are shadowy and *fantastic* : things which are not—were not !’

We admit, that human nature never produced such a man as Sir Charles Grandison ; but we believe it possible that the cause of virtue may be served by moral fiction ; and German writers make their characters occasionally frail, that they may become more exalted in their eventual return to virtue ; because their removal from splendid vice is the imperious act of innate moral rectitude. We rather advance this sentiment, however, in the way of argument, than from conviction. Nine out of ten, perhaps, young females, are more enamoured with the fascinating accomplishments of Lovelace, than enhorrored by the systematic progress of his libertinism.

‘ Of detailed biography,’ our author says, ‘ too much praise cannot easily be given ; it comes home to every man’s heart and bosom. If history be philosophy, teaching by example, biography is moral philosophy, made dramatic ; biography is the history of man, brought nearer to his mind’s eye. Neither in the tempers nor the fortunes of mankind, is there any thing new : the story of any one person’s feelings, related without reserve, would prove to be that of thousands of his own rank ; it would be a narrative of petty follies committed, and trivial accidents encountered, or narrowly escaped ; of partialities and prejudices ; of slighted or successful love ; of good and evil, done and suffered ; of ambition, disappointed or gratified ; of the alternations of hope and fear, health and sickness, joy and sorrow : and the delineation of a fellow-creature’s career in life delights, not from its novelty, but because it is, in every respect, the reverse of what is new ; and because it reflects images with which the reader’s feelings are already familiar. It is a fixed principle in our character, as human beings, to be desirous of knowing how others have conducted themselves in circumstances which have been, or may be, our own ; and this curiosity is amply repaid by biographical anecdote, and by no other sort of writing.’

At his introduction of Sterne, he continues——

‘ Books should be considered as companions : it is Swift, I believe, who says, that, for the purpose of enjoying the pleasure of reading

with the keenest zest, we ought to fancy the author of the volume we peruse actually speaking to us; and it is not difficult to conceive, of what sort that character is, which would be most welcome to us in an acquaintance. Should we not choose one, whose style of conversation was perfectly easy, yet, as untainted by vulgarity as by pedantry; one who could be rational without being sententious; serious, not sour; occasionally merry, yet never boisterous or indecorous; no declaimer, nor one given to dwell pertinaciously on any solitary topic, to the exclusion of every other, but full of variety;—and, above all things, neither so extensively learned, nor so oppressively amiable, as to keep us dejected in his presence, debased in our own esteem, and stunned with wonder during the period of our intercourse? Such, I am sure, is the definition of the associate whom I should select; and it certainly would not be easy to shew, why it ought not to apply at least as well to the *book* as to the companion. Under the fullest conviction that it does, it may be amusing to inquire, how far some established and much read works correspond with the foregoing description of what we ought to look for. Whether, for example, the writings of STERNE will bear the test. They are, perhaps, as generally known, as frequently reprinted in different forms, and as constantly read among us, as those of any modern English author. Sterne is perpetually quoted, and applauded, as excelling in three respects; namely, originality, tenderness, and humour. Dr. Ferriar has proved, with great acuteness, that he has little or no claim to the title of an original author, and that he is indebted, for some of his happiest thoughts to Rabelais, Burton, Bishop Hall, Marivaux, &c. of whom he has made an unsparing and disingenuous use.

All persons devoted to reading will occasionally find the same idea, differently expressed by various authors. We could adduce numerous instances in support of this fact. Rabelais possessed a quaintness of wit, peculiar to himself, and by no means intelligible to every mind. Shakspeare the same; hence the numbers of commentators who have taken upon themselves to elucidate his works; but these writers all differ from each other. If, therefore, we were to attach plagiarism to an author, who expressed an idea in conformity with Dr. Johnson's interpretation, it would be refuted by Malone, or Stevens, and become, at best, the subject of literary dispute. We read good authors to collect correct ideas: familiarity and memory, eventually, engraft them on our minds; they become our own ideas, and the ideas which we most cherish we are most anxious to display. Sterne's *Sentimental Journey* is untranslatable; a circumstance which, if it do not prove the originality of his ideas, certainly

proclaims the originality of his style. It is a work that never fatigues, from repetition of reading. In a pleasant, or an affecting story, he carries you into company with the persons he has assembled. You laugh with them, or weep with them: all your emotions, whether of pleasure, of tenderness, or of pain, are deliciously awakened; he models you, like a skillful artist, after his own exquisite taste and study. Yet, this *Sentimental Journey* is, according to Mr. Mangin,

‘so defiled with impurities of all kinds, as to render them repulsive to every admirer of moral propriety.’

He says the same, and with more truth, of *Tristram Shandy*; but contends that

‘the persons pourtrayed in his story of Mr. Shandy are *goblins*, not human beings.

Yet, he afterwards asserts, that

‘Burns, like Sterne, is a painter: like Sterne, he describes admirably; sees every object with a poet’s eyes; and exhilarates, by his humour, or, by his pathetic passages: fills the reader’s heart with emotions of tenderness; while the happiest sketch of local circumstances generally adorns the story he tells.’

Of poetry,

‘It has been said, that a criterion of poetical talent in a writer, is, that the artist should be able to paint whatever the author describes. But this may be disputed: for poetry is not always occupied with substantial forms. The sublime conceptions of Milton, in the *Paradise Lost*, perpetually baffles the best efforts of the pencil.’

The admirable works of Mr. Fuseli are powerful contradictions to this statement. Mr. Lawrence’s celebrated painting of Satan arousing his legions, is another instance of the possibility of embodying on canvas the sublimities of Milton’s muse. We wish our author had recollected what he writes to his correspondent.

‘As these letters, my dear E——, are intended merely to entertain us with a general inquiry into the nature of the pleasures of reading, and by no means designed to be a critical examination of the merits and demerits of the authors alluded to, there is no necessity for precision of arrangement;’

and, that a classical revision of his opinions ought to have preceded their publication.

The following passage is full of gallantry, and must be delightful, as an antidote to ennui :

* Arithmetical computation has been recommended (on good authority) as an admirable expedient for concentrating the powers of the understanding—allaying the irritabilities of temper, and withdrawing the mind from harassing cogitations.'

The lady, thus tutored, would do well to take lessons from the American boy, who exhibited his wonderful powers at computation, in Spring Gardens, rather than from Weipert or Mazzinghi. It would, at all events, be a novel accomplishment; and every female doats on novelty. Our author, it is true, afterwards admits,

* that the taste is rare, which prefers the pastime of *extracting the square root* to the charms of the *belles lettres*.'

: Of Thomson;

* Johnson has somewhere an anecdote of the author of the *Seasons*, from which it appears, how much deceived they may be, who think that the habitual propensities of a fine writer can be conjectured from the productions of his muse. A lady told Richard Savage, the poet, that she should have concluded Thomson, from his poem, to have been very *temperate*, very fond of swimming, and a most *sentimental* lover. Savage replied, that he knew the man well, and could safely assure her, that he was an enthusiastic admirer of a good dinner, and had never in his life been either in love or in the water.—But, we are not to infer, because there are impurities in the Epistle of Eloisa to Abelard, and in the Rape of the Lock, that Pope's practices were censurable; or that Fielding and Smollet were vulgar and vicious, because their pages are througed with coarse phrases and gross descriptions.'

We abstain from investigating the few remaining pages of this work; the labour would neither produce amusement to ourselves, or to our reader; and we conclude, by describing the author's delineation of a *book-scorner* :

* The idler, or book-scorner, of either sex, though commonly an object of contempt, ought much rather to excite the pity of the assiduous and enlightened; since nothing can be well imagined more deplorable, than the condition of a human being, on whose hands (memorandum for high life!) time is vulgarly said to hang heavy: nothing, indeed,

is more pitiable, except the state of those who, by various means, are compelled to suffer misery in consequence. Suppose a gentlewoman insensible to the pleasures which, you know, books can impart; and allow her all possible advantages besides—beauty, health, sweet temper (preposterously so called) and riches. Admit that she can dance like *the Didelot*, and sing like *Catalani*: grant her all this, and still the chances are, that in her transit through the world, whether in the capacity of a married or an unmarried member of society, she will do a great deal of mischief, and be of very little service to her fellow-creatures. And should she, in old age, especially, if she be single, have senses enough left to make any reflections, she will probably not derive much satisfaction from the comparison of what she has been, with what she might have been—from remembering, that it was possible to have employed herself better, than in giving business, at first to the milliner, and at last to the card-maker; better, than in contributing to the public revenue, by having consumed, in the course of practice, three or four hundred pounds, *avoirdupoise*, of Scotch snuff—better than by means of meddling, scandal, and tale-bearing, in having produced several unsuitable and unhappy marriages, and as many separations—better than in sowing dissension between parents and children, or than in presiding at concerts, leading the *ton* at balls, and assemblies of other kinds, and educating some scores of monkeys, canary-birds, squirrels, and lap-dogs?

ART. IV.—*Elements of Agricultural Chemistry*; in a course of Lectures, for the Board of Agriculture, by Sir Humphrey Davy, L.L.D. F.R.S. L. and E. M.R.I. member of the Board of Agriculture, of the Royal Irish Academy, of the Academies of St. Petersburg, Stockholm, Berlin, Philadelphia, &c. and honorary professor of Chemistry to the Royal Institution. With an Appendix, containing an account of the results of experiments on the produce and nutritive qualities of different grasses, and other plants, used as the food of animals, instituted by John, Duke of Bedford. 1 Vol. folio. Pp. 323. Price £2. 2s. Longman, &c. 1813.

THERE are few, if any, of the sciences, more deservedly the object of universal study in this country, than the science of chemistry. Fashion has stamped it with her fiat. The Royal Institution, and others of minor éclat, give public lectures on its profound and unbounded attributes; nor does the complexity, abstrusity, or classical relations, incident to the pursuit, deter young and blooming females, among our most distinguished nobility, from becoming zealous pupils in this favoured science.

And what can, in reality, be more delightful, than to trace the forms of living beings, and their adaptations and peculiar purposes; to examine the progress of inorganic matter in its different processes of change, till it attain its ultimate and highest designation—its subserviency to the purposes of man!

The volume before us is published at the express request of the president and members of the Board of Agriculture of 1812, a compliment that equally honors the author, ornaments the work, and gives it a flattering passport to the approbation of the public.

Chemistry may be styled the great volume of nature. It unfolds the omnipotence of the Deity, and instructs the mind, in an awful and comprehensive contemplation of the wisdom, protection, and omnipresence of the universal creator, without whose ordinance 'the sparrow falleth not to the ground.'

The analysis of vegetable substances, as explained by Sir Humphrey Davy, whose lectures have established the profundity of his studies, is most intimately connected with agriculture, horticulture, &c.; and although formerly the farmer might have contented himself, and successfully too, in following the mechanical process of his forefathers, in the cultivation of his grounds, still, the improvements of a more enlightened age, afford a grand comparative view of causes and effects, by combining scientific research with the simplest pursuits of nature.

Let us consider this admirable work.

LECTURE I.—Introduction.—General views of the objects, of the course, and of the order in which they are discussed.

This and the following lectures compose a course which have been progressively delivered by Sir Humphrey, since 1802, before the Board of Agriculture; and that gentleman is greatly indebted to the Duke of Bedford, who permitted him to add to his labours, the results of the experiments instituted by his Grace, upon the quantity of produce afforded by the different grapes; as well as to much useful information derived by him from many individuals composing the Agricultural Board.

The author under this head states

'that Agricultural Chemistry has not yet received a regular systematic form; it has been pursued by competent experiments for a short time only; the doctrines have not, as yet, been collected into

any elementary treatise; and, on an occasion when I am obliged to trust so much to my own arrangements, and to my own limited information, I cannot but feel diffident as to the interests that may be excited, and doubtful of the success of the undertaking. Agricultural Chemistry has, for its objects, all those changes in the arrangements of matter, connected with the growth and nourishment of plants; the comparative values of their produce as food; the constitution of soils; the manner in which lands are enriched by manure, or rendered fertile by the different processes of cultivation. Enquiries of such a nature cannot but be interesting and important, both to the theoretical agriculturist, and to the practical farmer. To the first, they are necessary in supplying most of the fundamental principles, on which the theory of the art depends. To the second, they are useful in affording simple and easy experiments for directing his labours, and for enabling him to pursue a certain systematic plan of improvement. It is scarcely possible to enter upon any investigation in agriculture, without finding it connected, more or less, with doctrines or elucidations derived from chemistry.'

These are his fundamental principles, and he proceeds to treat on the amelioration of unproductive land, and to analyze the nature and quality of the different manures, with their results, on the phenomena of vegetation, as it is dependant on the surface of the earth, the atmosphere, and the water deposited from it.. It is from an examination of the chemical nature of these principles, which together, or separate, afford all the principles concerned in vegetation, that we discern what is the food of plants, and the manner in which that food is supplied and prepared for their nourishment. Sir Humphrey, therefore, exposes the chemical composition of plants, by submitting the organs of plants to chemical analysis, and explains the influence of the soil, of water, and of air, in producing their vegetation and luxuriance. He tells us, notwithstanding, that a philosophical chemist would, most probably, make a very unprofitable business of farming; but he advises the practice of the art, as well as the theory—practice founded upon regular apprenticeship.

LECTURE II.—Of the general powers of matter which influence vegetation.—Of gravitation, of cohesion, of chemical attraction, of heat, of light, of electricity, ponderable substances, elements of matter, particularly those found in vegetables, laws of their combinations and arrangements.

In support of the principles of gravitation, which is one of the most important properties belonging to matter, inasmuch as it is the power by which masses of matter are attracted to each other. Sir Humphrey gives us an experiment made by Mr. Knight.

'That gentleman fixed some seeds of the garden bean on the circumference of a wheel, which, in one instance, was placed vertically, and in the other, horizontally, and made to revolve by means of another wheel, worked by water, in such a manner, that the number of the revolutions could be regulated. The beans were supplied with moisture, and are placed under circumstances favorable to germination. The great velocity of motion given to the wheel was such, that it performed 250 revolutions in a minute. It was found that, in all cases, the beans grew, and that the direction of the roots and stems was influenced by the motion of the wheel. When the centrifugal force was made superior to the force of gravitation, which was supposed to be done when the vertical wheel performed 150 revolutions in a minute, all the radicles, in whatever way they were protruded from the position of the seeds, turned their points outwards, from the circumference of the wheel; and, in their subsequent growth, receded nearly at right angles from its axis. The germins, on the contrary, took the opposite direction, and, in a few days, their points all met in the centre of the wheel. When the centrifugal force was made merely to modify the force of gravitation in the horizontal wheel, where the greatest velocity of revolution was given, the radicles pointed downwards, about ten degrees below, and the germins as many degrees above, the horizontal line of the wheel's motion; and the deviation from the perpendiculars was less, in proportion as the motion was less rapid.'

This experiment is exemplified with a plate, representing two wheels; the first, is explanatory of the experiment when the vertical wheel was made to perform 150 revolutions in a minute—the second, when the horizontal wheel performed 250 revolutions.

'On the powers of attraction, our author says, that they, in their different states, preserve the arrangements of matter, or unite them in new forms. For, if there were no opposing powers, there would soon be a state of perfect quiescence in nature; a kind of eternal sleep in the physical world. Cohesion and chemical attraction are opposed by the repulsive energies of heat, and the harmonious cycle of terrestrial changes, is produced by their mutual operations. This he exemplifies.

'Two opinions,' he adds, 'are current, respecting the nature of heat. By some philosophers it is conceived to be a peculiar subtle fluid, of which the particles repel each other, but have a strong attraction for the particles of other matter. By others it is considered as a motion or vibration of the particles of matter, which is supposed to differ in velocity in different cases, and thus to produce the different degrees of temperature. Whatever decision be ultimately made respecting these opinions, it is certain, that there is matter moving in the space between us and the heavenly bodies, capable of communicating heat. Thus, the solar rays produce heat, in acting upon the surface of the earth. The beautiful experiments of Dr. Herschel have shown that there are rays transmitted from the sun which do not illuminate, and which yet produce more heat than the visible rays; and Mr. Ritter and Dr. Wollaston have shewn, that there are other invisible rays, distinguished by their chemical effects. The different influence of the different solar rays on vegetation, have not yet been studied; but it is certain that the rays exercise an influence independent of the heat they produce. Thus plants kept in the dark, in a hot-house, grow luxuriantly, but they never gain their natural colours; their leaves are white or pale, and their juices watery and peculiarly saccharine.'

The powers of electricity are next defined; then follow, simple substances; whose characteristic properties are thus classed and commented upon, oxygene, chlorine, hydrogene, azote, carbon, sulphur, phosphorus, boron, platinum, gold, silver, mercury, copper, cobalt, nickel, iron, tin, zinc, lead, bismuth, antimony, arsenic, manganesum, potassium, sodium, barium, strontium, calcium, magnesium, silicum, aluminum, zirconum, glucinum, itrium.

LECTURE III.—On the organization of plants.—Of the roots, trunk, and branches.—Of their structure.—Of the epidermis.—Of the cortical and alburnous parts of the leaves, flowers, and seeds.—Of the chemical constitution of the organs of plants, and the substances found in them.—Of mucilaginous, saccharine, extractive, resinous, and oily substances, and other vegetable compounds, their arrangements in the organs of plants, their composition, changes, and uses.

'Variety characterizes the vegetable kingdom; yet there is an analogy between the forms and the functions of all the different classes of plants; and, on this analogy, the scientific principles relating to their organization depend. Vegetables are living structures distinguished from animals by exhibiting no signs of perception, or of voluntary motions,

and their organs, are either organs of nourishment, or of reproduction,—organs for the preservation and increase of the individual, or for the multiplication of the species.

Sir Humphrey enters into a disquisition on the exterior form and interior constitution of the living vegetable system, with great perspicuity and success. He acknowledges four systems of organs, 'The root—the trunk and branches—the leaves—the flowers, or seeds. This article will be read with equal interest and delight. An explanatory plate, represents both the result of experiments made on the maple, in parts where the bark was insulated. (*Journal de Physique*, p. 210.) and Mirbel's idea of the simple tubes, the porous tubes, the trachæ, and the false trachæ, all tubes of the vascular system. Other plates exhibit the section of an elm branch, displaying the tubular structure and the silver and spurious grain—the section of part of the branch of an oak—and that of the branch of an ash. These experiments are extremely curious and scientific as, indeed, are the whole of this lecture; but relate, perhaps, more to Botanical than to Agricultural history.

LECTURE IV.—On soils: their constituent parts.—On the analysis of soils.—Of the uses of the soil.—Of the rocks and strata found beneath soils.—Of the improvement of soil.

'No subject is of more importance to the farmer (says our author,) than the nature and improvement of soils; and no parts of the doctrines of Agriculture are more capable of being illustrated by chemical enquiries. Soils are extremely diversified in appearance and quality. The substances which constitute soils, are certain compounds of the earth, silica, lime, alumina, magnesia, and of the oxides of iron and manganese—animal and vegetable matters in a decomposing nature, and saline, acid or alkaline combinations.

In all chemical experiments on the composition of soils connected with Agriculture, the constituent parts obtained are compounds, and they act as compounds in nature; in this state, he illustrates their characteristic properties; and concludes with a dissertation on the properties of rocks exemplifying his lecture with a description of the general appearance and arrangement of rocks, and vein, embracing the granite, gneis, micaceous schistus, sienite, serpentine, porphyry, granular marble, chlorite schist, quartzose rock,

grauwacke, silicious sand stone limestone, shale, calcareous sand stone, iron stone, basalt, coal, gypsum, rock salt, chalk, plumpudding stone, primary mountains, secondary mountains, veins.

LECTURE V.—On the nature and constitution of the atmosphere, and its influence on vegetables.—Of the germination of seeds.—Of the functions of plants in their different stages of growth, with a general view of the progress of vegetation.

In sandy soils, the earth is always sufficiently penetrable by the atmosphere; but in clayey soils there can scarcely be too great a mechanical division of parts in the process of tillage. Any seed not fully supplied with air, always produces a weak and diseased plant. In all cases of tillage, the seed should be sown so as to be fully exposed to the air. This subject is treated at large.

Sir Humphrey finally observes,

‘that nature, amidst all her changes, is continually directing her resources towards the production and multiplication of life; and in the wise and grand economy of the whole system, even the agents that appear injurious to the hopes, and destructive to the comforts of man, are, in fact, ultimately connected with a more exalted state of his powers and his condition. His industry is awakened, his activity kept alive, even by the defects of climate and season. By the accidents which interfere with his efforts, he is made to exert his talents, to look further into futurity, and to consider the vegetable kingdom, not as a secure and unalterable inheritance, spontaneously providing for his wants, but as a doubtful and insecure possession, to be preserved only by labour, and to be extended and perfected by ingenuity.’

LECTURE VI.—Of manures of vegetable and animal origin.—Of the manner in which they become the nourishment of the plants.—Of fermentation and putrefaction.—Of the different manures of vegetable origin.—Of the different species of animal origin.—Of mixed manures.—General principles with respect to the use and application of such manures.

That vegetation is accelerated, and the produce of land increased, by manure, is a conclusion perfectly understood from the earliest periods of farming. But the manner in which different manures act, the most successful way of applying them, and their relative value and durability, are subjects always open to discussion and to improvement. On this important head, Sir Humphrey descants with his usual

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acknowledged ability, and lays down rules, founded on experiment, for the information of the theorist, and the profit of the practitioner by exhibiting a scientific view of the nature of the changes, produced by animal and vegetable substances; of the causes which occasion, and either accelerate or retard them, and of the products they afford. This is his conclusion.

‘The doctrine of the proper application of manures from organized substances, offers the illustration of a most important part of the economy of nature, and of the happy order in which it is arranged. The death and decay of animal substances tend to resolve organized forms into chemical constituents; and the pernicious effluvia disengaged, in the process, seem to point out the propriety of burying them in the soil, where they are fitted to become the food of vegetables. The fermentation and putrefaction of organized substances in the free atmosphere are noxious operations. In this case the food of plants is prepared where it can be used; and that which would offend the senses, and injure the health, if exposed, is converted by gradual processes into forms of beauty and of usefulness; the foetid gas is rendered a constituent of the arena of the flower; and what might be poison, becomes nourishment to animals and to man.’

LECTURE VII.—Of manures, of minerals, origin, or fossil manures; their preparation, and the manner in which they act.—Of lime, in its different states; operation of lime as a manure and a cement; different combinations of lime.—Of gypsum; ideas respecting its use.—Of other neutro saline compounds, employed as manures.—Of alkalies and alkaline salts; of common salts.

This lecture is a continuation of that preceding.

LECTURE VIII.—On the improvement of lands by burning; chemical principles of its operation.—On irrigation and its effects.—On fallowing, its disadvantages, and uses.—On the controvertible husbandry founded on regular rotations of different crops.—On pasture; views connected with its application.—On various agricultural objects connected with chemistry.—Conclusion.

Sir Humphrey tells us, and it is a classical fact, that the improvement of sterile lands, by burning, was known to the Romans. We so find it in the first book of the *Georgics* of Virgil. It is a practice still much in use, particularly in the West India islands, where we have witnessed the operation and its successful issue. Our intelligent author states, that the theory of its operation, which has occasioned much discussion, both amongst scientific men, and practical farmers, is wholly dependant upon chemical doctrines, the

proof of which composes the object of this lecture. This is his farewell observation.

'I have, now, exhausted all the subjects of discussion, which my experience or information have been able to supply on the connection of chemistry with agriculture. I venture to hope that some of the views brought forward, may contribute to the improvement of the most important and useful of the arts. I trust, that the enquiry will be pursued by others; and that, in proportion as chemical philosophy advances towards perfection, it will afford new aids to agriculture. There are sufficient motives connected both with pleasure and profit, to encourage ingenious men to pursue this new path of investigation. Science cannot long be despised by any persons as the mere speculation of theorists; but must soon be considered, by all ranks, of men, in its true point of view, as the refinement of common sense guided by experience, gradually substituting sound and rational principles, for vague, popular prejudices. The soil offers inexhaustible resources, which, when properly appreciated, and employed, must encrease our wealth, our population, and our physical strength. We possess advantages in the use of machinery and the division of labour, belonging to no other nation. And the same energy of character, the same extent of resources, which have always distinguished the people of the British island, and made them excel in arms, commerce, letters, and philosophy, apply with the happiest effect to the improvement of the cultivation of the earth. Nothing is impossible to labor, aided by ingenuity. The true objects of the agriculturist, are, likewise, those of the patriot. Men value most what they have gained with efforts; a just confidence in their own powers, results from success; they love their country better, because they have seen it improved by their own talents and industry; and they identify with their interests the existence of those institutions which have afforded them security, independence, and the multiplied engagements of civilized life.'

We take leave of these instructive and entertaining lectures with regret; and, in recommending them to the general reader, have to declare, that it is not among the least of their claims, that they are as free, as science will permit, from all technical learning; and convey to the studious, a simple, natural, and familiar acquaintance, with one of the most fascinating pursuits in nature.

APPENDIX.—*On the Grasses.*

Agriculture is, perhaps, more indebted to the late Duke of Bedford, than to any individual of extensive landed interests,

for the unwearied and persevering zeal, with which he devoted much of his valuable life, to its general welfare and improvement. At his decease, the present Duke appeared to show an anxiety to pursue the tract, so patriotically opened to him by his late lamented brother. He has, however, been pleased to withdraw himself from the station he filled at the Agricultural Board, and has given his warm wishes, in lieu of his best energies, to that cause, of which the late Duke was a splendid ornament. Among the results of an infinite variety of progressive improvements, the late Duke acquired a knowledge of the comparative merits and value of all the different species of grasses, by instituting a series of experiments, which this appendix sets forth, and elucidates. These experiments are very ably detailed in classes, comprehending ninety-seven distinct compartments. They are the ingenious productions of Mr. George Sinclair, gardener to his grace, and corresponding member of the Horticultural Society of Edinburgh; they close, with a table explanatory of the time in which different grasses produce, flowers and seeds; and an enumeration of the different soils referred to in the appendix.

General observations, on the chemical composition of the nutritive matter afforded by the grasses, in their different states, from the pen of the editor, concludes this work.

ART. VI.—*The Right and Practice of Impressment*, as concerning Great Britain and America, considered.—Octavo, p.p. 68. J. Murray. 1814.

At this auspicious moment, this almost universal jubilee, when the heroic veterans of Europe are about to exchange their swords for the ploughshare; when commerce, decked in all her fascinating smiles, points in the one hand to Peace, and with the other to Prosperity; how deeply have we to deplore, that bigotry of opinion, by that mad adherence to mistaken state policy, which still directs the unwilling arms of a mother country against the lives and dearest interests of her deluded offspring.

Mr. Madison and his lunatic partisans, opposing the general wishes and welfare of a people, whose immediate resources, and ultimate ambition, were dependant on the advantages of commerce, has involved the United States in a wanton and ruinous war.

The consideration of this gross impolicy, its origin, and

its effects, are the basis of the arguments adduced in the pamphlet before us. Let us look into the author's reasoning. He says,

‘ Just at the moment when Buonaparte was setting out on his invasion of Russia, the government of the United States of America declared war against Great Britain.

‘ Mr. Madison did not state, in his *Manifesto*, that his hostility, against the only ally of Russia, was intended as a diversion in favour of Buonaparte. He did not state that he considered this an auspicious juncture for attempting the conquest of Canada, when the British nation was putting forth all her strength, and exhausting, with a boundless, but wise, liberality, all her resources in the last grand struggle for European liberty; while her armies were engaged in the protection of Lisbon and Cadiz, and her navies co-operating in the defence of Dantzic and Riga.

‘ But, if the hopes of assisting France and of conquering Canada did not actuate Mr. Madison, it is hard to discover what his motives were.

‘ All the pretexts for hostilities, which he had successively advanced, successively failed him; and he was nearly in the condition of being the aggressor to a war of which all the ostensible grounds were removed, and of which the *real* cause could not be avowed; when a fresh pretence was advanced—one not thought of as a cause of war in the earlier periods of the discussion, and only produced in the hour of his necessity, when something was to be said, and he had nothing else to say.

‘ This was the question of IMPRESSMENT; and though I cannot for a moment believe that this was originally any other than a mere *pretence* for the war, yet, as it is now the only cause that survives (Buonaparte has vanished, and Canada is probably saved), and as much misunderstanding and a great deal of misrepresentation exist on the subject, and as I have had practical opportunities of considering it more nearly than the generality of my countrymen, I have thought it might not be useless to collect into one view what appears to me to be on this subject the true state of the case between Great Britain and America.

‘ The complaint of the American government is two-fold :—

‘ 1. It complains of the impressment of British subjects from its vessels.

‘ 2. It complains that, under pretence of impressing British subjects, American seamen are forcibly taken or detained.

‘ The first of these complaints involves the question of the RIGHT of search and impressment from neutral ships in general. The second, that of the PRACTICE, as it affects America.

‘ I shall therefore consider the subject under these two heads ; well satisfied that I shall be able to shew the first complaint to be

utterly unfounded, and the second to be grossly exaggerated; and that, on the whole, there is not only no justifiable cause for war (as arising out of this question, at least) on the part of America; but that, on the contrary, it will be found, on reference to the acknowledged laws and customs of civilized nations, that Great Britain is, of the two parties, infinitely the most aggrieved; that American subjects may be exposed to *inconveniences*; but that the British empire suffers actual and serious *injury*.

‘1. *Right of Impressment*.—Great Britain, being engaged in war, claims a right to the services of all her natural-born subjects; and, when she finds them endeavouring to neutralize and shelter themselves under a foreign flag, she compels their services exactly on the same principle that she would do if the men were found in England, or in British ships.

‘This right America seems (for her language is not very explicit) to deny on two grounds.

‘§ 1. On an assertion of the right of a natural born subject of one state to adopt, and naturalize himself in, another; and to transfer his allegiance to the latter, to the exclusion of the former.

‘§ 2. On the general objection to the search of neutral ships by a belligerent.

‘Upon the principles of this asserted right, and this double objection, a few observations (however obvious to every man conversant with public law) will be a proper introduction to a more detailed consideration of the question.

‘‘§ 1. Society,’’ say the writers on public law, ‘‘is the union of individuals combined for mutual defence and safety. Each individual is bound to contribute his personal means to the common strength of the society or nation; and the nation is bound to preserve *itself*; and as a *means of self-preservation*, all its members.’

‘‘A nation,’’ says Vattel, ‘‘owes this to itself, since the loss of one of its members weakens it, and is injurious to its preservation.’

‘This is, in short, the law of nature and of nations on the subject

‘The municipal laws of all European countries are founded upon the same principle (generally expressed, but always implied), that the sovereign authority of a state has a right to the military services of all its subjects; and the whole system of legal polity throughout the great European family attests, in its various details, the universality and justice of this principle.

‘But this duty of allegiance is not only universal, or applicable to every subject, but is indefeasible, and cannot be put off. It is an engagement contracted by the citizen at his birth, and co-existent with his life: for, if it were otherwise,—if every individual were to have the power of transferring his allegiance at his own will and pleasure,—the greatest crime known to the law of all countries, namely, HIGH TREASON, would become a safe and profitable practice. If it were lawful to change a man’s allegiance once, it would be lawful to change

it as often as the individual pleased—from England to America, and from America back again to England. Men would change their national character to evade the requisitions made on their personal or pecuniary service. Deserters from the cause of their country would be merely *neutralized citizens*; and deserters to the enemy, *citizens* who had *transferred* their allegiance; the punishment of offences against the laws of God, and of the land, would be evaded by the transfer of the allegiance of the offender, and the whole frame and state of society would be disordered and subverted.

‘The doctrine which leads to these monstrous conclusions, and which no nation of the old world ever thought of, it remained for America to advance.

‘It may be worth while to inquire, very shortly, why, of all human societies, the United States alone should have fallen into this opinion.

‘It is from inexperience. America is a young nation, and her institutions are still younger; they have been formed on speculative notions of the individual independence and inherent rights of man, without much reference to the experience of the ancient modes of government, or the social principle which combines and merges the rights of individual man in the duties of society.

‘The experience of Europe was rejected in America, as the result of prejudices unfavourable to liberty; and the local position and circumstances of the United States have prevented their yet feeling, in any pressing degree, the inconveniences to which the looseness of their notions of public laws is likely to expose them hereafter.

‘If their present federal union should be dissolved, and adjoining states should become independent of one another; or whenever a denser population of the nations on their frontier shall place them in the situation in which European states now are; it may be safely predicted that they will then be obliged to adopt the European system of public law, and to seek in its principles the solution of those difficult questions which cannot fail to arise between neighbouring and civilized states.

‘The right of impressing foreigners let me state, is not only *not* claimed, but, absolutely *disclaimed* in *principle* and *prohibited* in *practice*: while, in the case of the *VOLUNTARY* enlistments of foreigners, it will be found that the practice of the British Admiralty is consistent with, and corroborative of, all the principle for which I have before contended.

‘That practice recognizes (as was stated in the House of Commons last year from authority) two distinct characters in every foreign seaman:—the one individual and personal, the other national. In the former character, any seaman may voluntarily enter the British service; and having thus, of his own accord, entered into an individual engagement, he is not permitted again to change his mind, and depart from that engagement. He voluntarily relinquishes his *indivi-*

dual rights as a foreign citizen, and is not allowed, at his pleasure, to resume them.

‘ But the *national* character is not an individual, but a public right: it belongs less to the seaman himself than to the sovereign who has a claim to his service; and it is therefore admitted that even the voluntary entry of a foreigner into our navy cannot bar the right of his sovereign to reclaim him.

‘ Thus then the applications of individuals who have voluntarily entered are resisted, though the claim of their sovereign for their release is acceded to.

‘ I have thus stated some of the causes by which it appears to me that America may have been led to endeavour to subvert a principle all other civilized nations recognized, and to contend for a doctrine which would go far to subvert all national society.

‘ I think, however, I may venture to assume, that the law of nature, of reason, of Europe, and of England, will not now be abandoned to these American pretensions, and to hope (as the only means of peace) that the government, or, if not the government, the people, at least, of the United States, are not determined to continue an aggressive war, for the sake of establishing, (not for the advantage of their own citizens, but in favour of the *runaways* of other nations,) an abstract proposition, false in principle, mischievous in practice, refuted by all writers, and rejected by the unanimous wisdom of all ages and nations.

‘ § 2. The general right of search of a neutral ship on the high sea by a belligerent has not I believe, been distinctly denied by America, though her statesmen have on several occasions, affected to question it; but, in the particular case of the search of an American vessel for British subjects, the right is, if not absolutely denied, treated as a matter of heavy and intolerable grievance.

‘ It might, perhaps be enough on this point to say, that if, as I have shown, the law of nations confirms the right of the sovereign over his subject, the same law implies a right in the sovereign to search for and to take that subject. If a nation has a right, it has a moral power to vindicate that right, and is justifiable in applying its physical power for the purpose; for it is nonsense to talk of legal rights, from the exercise of which one is legally debarred; and, in truth, before America can, with any degree of consistency, deny our right to search her ships for our seamen, she must deny our right of search in the abstract; for on what score is the search after enemy's property to be admitted, if the search after your own property be denied? A neutral ship is not to be converted into a means of strengthening our enemy: is it then to be made a means of weakening us? The belligerent's right of search exists equally in both cases, because the principle, on which the search proceeds, in both cases is the same; namely self-preservation.

‘ Again; if the right of search for *contraband* of war is not denied

why should the right of search for *man*,—man, which is, in truth, the highest species of contraband of war, because all other kinds are merely materials for his use, and useful to a belligerent in direct proportion to the number of men which it may have to employ on those materials? Can it be denied that we have a right to search a neutral to detect the conveyance of reinforcements to an enemy's army or fleet? Certainly not. How then can it be denied that we have a right to search a neutral to detect deserters from our own?

‘ I also admit that the right of search, (as it must needs subject the neutral to some degree of inconvenience,) ought not to be exercised in cases where there can exist no suspicion of illegal practice on the part of the neutral; and if America were in a condition to show that it was impossible that a British subject should be on board an American ship, the exercise of the right of search would be unjust. If she could even shew that such a case was in a high degree improbable, the search should then be exercised with proportionable caution, but this is only a corroboration of the original principle; it is unjust in proportion as it is unnecessary; because it is just as far as it is necessary; but the evil being not merely possible or probable, but *certain, avowed, and defended*, the remedy becomes not merely a *RIGHT*, but a *DUTY*; and the inconvenience which the neutral suffers is one to which, knowingly and willingly, he exposes himself—an inconvenience to which, as he must expect it, he of course would not subject himself, if he did not find in the practice some compensatory advantage.

‘ But the inconvenience—be it great or small, compensated or not—it is to the neutral but an inconvenience, while the abandonment of the practice might be to the belligerent, and would be to Great Britain, a vital injury. It would have the tendency of unmanning her fleet,—of exposing not her commerce alone, but her territory, to the invasion of her enemy,—and of compromising her very existence as a free and independent nation.

‘ Nor is Great Britain alone concerned in upholding this doctrine.—What would be, at this hour, the state of *Europe* if Buonaparte and Mr. Madison had succeeded in their joint efforts to subvert the commercial and maritime power of Great Britain?

‘ I trust, therefore, that I may be permitted to assume that the right of Great Britain to search American ships for her natural born subjects, deserters from her service, and her right to take them when found, is fully established on the acknowledged principles of natural and public law; and in this confidence I shall now proceed to consider of the *PRACTICE*, and of the amount of the injury sustained by America in the exercise of this right by Great Britain.

Our author proceeds to state, that there are but three modes of impressment which can affect America, and these he treats with the skill of a politician and the feelings of a patriot. His impartiality pervades the whole of his argu-

ments, as he studiously maintains them, in their strongest points, by immediate documents published by the American government. He tells us, and with strict truth and justice to both parties—

‘ It is well known, that British officers are *most expressly* prohibited from impressing or detaining Americans in His Majesty’s service; and that, in fact, no officer would willingly subject himself to the various inconveniences which might attend the impressment of an American; but the identity of language, and similarity of names and of personal appearance, between the seamen of the two countries, render it impossible for the British officer to distinguish between them as *certainly* as he does between Britons and other foreigners.

‘ It is to be regretted, no doubt, that the British officers have no certain rule to distinguish Americans from British subjects, and that consequently, mistakes must sometimes happen: but it is a matter of satisfaction, and, I may add, of surprise, in how few cases these mistakes are found to be made; and, even as these few mistakes, it is matter of consolation to reflect that it is the irregular and improper conduct of America herself which has occasioned them.

‘ The law of America furnishes her seamen with certain documents or certificates of citizenship, which, if they had been framed upon sound principles of public law, and granted only to those who had a right to them, would have protected the real American, and satisfied and guided the British officer; but these documents, so far from effecting the object for which theoretically they were designed, have in practice ‘ worse confounded the confusion,’ and are,—or rather were before the war,—the great instrument in the hands of America for encouraging and screening British desertion.’

He next shews the manner of procuring these fraudulent certificates, by detailing a few notorious cases, selected, not as solitary instances, but as examples of many hundred similar transactions. This discovery clearly proves that the practical amount of the injury done to America, is very inconsiderable; and that Mr. Madison, so far from making out a case of wrong to justify his hostilities, has scarcely furnished matter for a diplomatic remonstrance. Considering that America issues 60,000 protections of the nature described by this pamphlet; that the British national navy employs 140,000; and her commercial navy 200,000, and, that the natives of the two countries are not distinguishable by their names, language, or habits. It would scarcely be termed a matter of reproach to the British authorities, and still less an adequate cause of war, that 800 men, who had, either no documents of distinction, or who produced false and forged

certificates, had been detained in our service. And the more particularly, as many of the latter number were volunteers in our navy. Several hundred seamen have actually been discharged from our ships of war, on their allegation that they were Americans, and on our admission that no man can be held to fight against his country.

Is this no alleviation of the grievance so virulently complained of? Does it betray the tyranny of the British navy? And yet, on this futile plea, and unsupported pretence, the lives of thousands, and the quiet of millions is wickedly and barbarously risked, in compliment to a presumed infringement on the national honour of the American States. But staining the ocean with human blood, and strewing the snows of Canada with the bones of an invading army, has little to do with what Mr. Madison may term retributive justice; and this too, at the hands of a man who harbours our deserters, and gives an asylum to our renegadoes. The conclusion is this:—England, the most injured party, submits; and America, the least injured, ought, on a balance of profit and loss to be satisfied. But how is this grievance to be remedied? Our author says;

‘ I think, that, according to the homely, but prudent, admonition of ‘ beginning with the beginning,’ not a syllable of discussion should be uttered between the British and American commissioners until some hope is afforded of such discussion coming to an amicable conclusion, by the admission of the latter, (as the basis of all ulterior proceedings,) of the international law as it is at present received in Europe, and particularly of that part of it which establishes the doctrine of natural allegiance.

‘ I have, in what I have written, abstained, as far as possible, from alluding to any other topics of discussion with America than those connected with the subject of IMPRESSMENT; but I need hardly say that they are many and weighty; and that the American government has much to answer for to Great Britain, to Russia, to France, and to mankind, with regard to its shameful partiality to Buonaparte. But these subjects are not my business; and I only refer to them thus generally, lest I should be supposed (if these observations should obtain any notice) to admit, that though the question of impressment is the only cause of complaint which survives to America, that it is the only point of discussion in which Great Britain has a right to expect from her antagonist indemnity for the past, and security for the future.’

ART. VII.—*The Port Folio*, containing essays, letters, and narratives. In 2 vols. 12mo. Murray, &c. 1814.

THIS little work is intended, we presume, to imitate a sort of *Spectator* it abounds with variety. The essays are not very profound but they are moral; and aim to pourtray the passions, manners, foibles, and fashions of society. The narratives are entertaining, and suited to many tastes. They are variously simple, romantic, sentimental, pathetic, and wonderful. We will give the reader the spirit of our author in a quotation from number 1—and another from number 6. If the proposed satire be unnerved by wit, it is uninfluenced by malignity; let it proclaim its own merits.

On the early introduction of females into society.—

‘Amidst the various errors which have been sanctioned by fashion and custom, but which they, even powerful as they are, cannot reconcile to the thinking and unprejudiced part of the world, the early introduction of females into society, stands in a conspicuous point of view. Who will deny that immorality is gaining ground in the female world; and as the interest of a country are confessedly involved, in the good or bad conduct of women, is it not a question of rational as well as individual importance, what is the best way to oppose the growing evil—what barrier shall be raised to stem the swelling current which threatens to overwhelm us?’ ‘Females are frequently brought forward into the world, before they are calculated to act their part with propriety. Were it possible they should, for a time, appear as speculators only, some, though by no means all, of the difficulties might be remedied—because they might then learn to imitate, or to avoid, what was estimable, or the contrary. But this is not the case. So great is the love of men for something new, and in some, it is to be feared so strong is the desire to ingratiate themselves by pernicious flattery, that they are too frequently, seen proving like destructive insects around a novel sweet, and thus mar the mental beauty, which but for these baleful influences, time would have heightened and matured. A young female, therefore, must take her station in company as an actor; and as a principal one too; for, is she not new, and is not that to those who are satiated with the perpetual exhibition of the same charms, to be attractive? Behold her then ushered into life! her principles unfixed, her mind unformed, her intellect undeveloped. How can she thus, unprepared, meet the difficulties to which she is exposed? Where is the reflection necessary to make her examine into her own conduct—the judgment to guide her admiration of others—the firm religious principles to oppose to internal vanity, and the external nourishment and excitement it receives. Instead of pursuing those studies, which enlighten and give stability

to the mind, she, with the unchecked volatility of youth delighted at having escaped the school room trammels, is studying how to adorn herself—pondering only on the admiration she excites—and weaving webs in fancy's loom, of the advantageous settlements her charms promise. But how many are there, the commencement of whose career was thus brilliant—whose prospects of establishment were thus promising—who, at sixteen, obtained great admiration, and who have, at five and twenty, been no longer regarded! day after day, and night after night, they have presented themselves in the circles of dissipation, in the hope of still captivating, but in vain—those charms, which, had they been supported by a sober and improved mind, would have gained individual and lasting affection, instead of passing and general admiration, have ultimately failed to secure either, and their possessors have been doomed to spend a discontented meridian, and a cheerless age, in single blessedness. Disappointed themselves, they see with a secret satisfaction the destruction of that happiness in others, of which they have been themselves deprived, and even sometimes aid it. Destitute of principles and of internal resource, they find no solace but in ill nature, and no employment but in calumny.

‘Let us now turn our eyes to the married female. We see her grand object attained in a husband, ignorant of men, and unable to examine into her own feelings, she imagines the predilection she feels must be love, and must ensure happiness. She thinks not of the duties of matrimony; the importance she shall gain, the *éclat* of establishment, and the imaginary right to follow her own inclinations, alone occupy her. With these views she enters the marriage state, unconscious that more good sense and amiability are requisite to preserve than to gain a husband's affections. She has not yet sufficiently tried what are commonly called the pleasures of life, to estimate them at their real value, and is consequently allured by those to leave her children to the care of mercenaries, neglecting their interest, and her own true happiness. She will not nurse those interesting beings, because it would interfere with her gaities. But the woman who is destitute of maternal tenderness, is lightly bound to her husband: She who disregards the plaintive cry of her infants, or is insensible to its cherubic smile, should tremble for her hold in the affection of its father. In her giddy round she meets with some villain, who sees how easily she may be won, he inspires her with the passion she never felt before, which she imagines irresistible; and having no strong hold of principle, within which she may entrench herself, no domestic affections which it would cause a pang to break, she sinks an early prey to his seductive arts. Many of those unfortunate beings who have been divorced, have imputed their crime, in the first instance, to their youth and inexperience when they married, which rendered them insensible to the importance of the conjugal duties, unconscious of what would ultimately please them, and therefore more easily led astray, when those, more calculated to charm than their husbands, appeared.’

We deplore that general observations on the manners of high life, will stamp conviction on this prophetic picture; fashionable education is pregnant with every moral evil. The accomplishments of the present day are glowing; not impressive. Native modesty is no longer hailed with admiration; it is expelled as a rustic virtue. Religion is become an obsolete study, and German morality has usurped its place. The retiring graces are lost in the voluptuous mazes of a sentimental waltz; and the blush of innocence has ceased to accompany an undressed female, from her dressing to her drawing room.

The other subject is on physiognomy, addressed to the editor. It is strongly caricatured—it may be intended to ridicule the disciples of Lavater.

‘I have the misfortune to be the husband of a lady, who has most unluckily acquired the idea, that she is a physiognomist, and to so ridiculous a height does she carry this prepossession, that it is really become one of the daily, and most serious uneasinesses of my life; and distressing as the idea is, I fear the animosities it causes; will at last, effect a separation between a couple, in every other respect, extremely well calculated, to make each other happy. We have been married six years, and, during that time, she has had the dexterity to alienate me from nearly every friend I had in the world—some of them happened to have too short a nose, some too long. One had a particular curve in the chin, that denoted hypocrisy, and another had a lip expressive of malice. In short, whoever was so unlucky as to differ from the standard of excellence that she deemed perfect, was sure to become the object of her dislike. And when that was the case, she was miserable, until she had brought me over, in some measure, to her opinions, which I blush to own, by dint of reiterated insinuation, and open declamation, she, too often, succeeded in. When she failed in dividing me and my friends in this way, she had a never failing method of doing so, by treating them with the most rigid indifference and silent contempt, which naturally induced them to absent themselves from my house; so that, I am now nearly bereft of all society, there being only two or three among our numerous acquaintance, whose physiognomy is agreeable to her.’

To illustrate the mischievous effects of this predominant foible, the poor husband recounts a variety of ridiculous adventures in which his lady’s obstinate adherence to her cherished principles has involved them both; in the last of which she breaks her arm at the farewell night of Mrs. Siddons’s last performance, as she sought to escape among the crowd, from a person who had been seated in the same box with her, of whose features she formed a most unfavourable conclusion.

ART. VIII.—*Lorimer*, a tale. Pp. 240. Colburn, 1814.

INVENTION of attractive incident, and delineation of entertaining character, are the two principal means by which novelists seek to excite the interest of their readers, and to convey amusement and instruction. Both these operations are united, to a certain extent, in every novel; and there is, in this description of performance, a combination of particular proportions of character and incident. But, since for reasons which we shall presently state, the cultivation of either of these features to a great height, is necessarily attended with a proportionate disregard of the other, one of them is generally found to predominate in every novel. Hence this description of writing may be divided into two classes, of which the one derives its principal attraction from plot and adventure, and the other, from the amusement attending the representation of character. There are many other kinds of novels, as to our cost we are fully aware; but it is the two classes we have here distinguished, and their comparative merits, to which our present remarks are restricted. The productions belonging to both these classes are meant, no doubt, to excite interest and afford amusement; but the strong feelings which constitute interest predominate in the first; and the gentler feelings, that afford amusement, predominate in the second. In the first, certain uncommon incidents and circumstances, the product of accident, error, or some enormous folly or crime, produce in the hero and other actors of the tale, those powerful emotions to which they are liable, not in their peculiar character of individuals, but in their general character of men, and which are meant to be communicated by them to the reader. Circumstances of powerful and general interest are related, and the common feelings of men in such circumstances, and not the peculiar characters of individuals, are developed and described. In the second, the incidents are the subordinate part, and resemble the occurrences that present themselves in the usual progress of human affairs; they produce the natural workings of the elements of ordinary character, and are meant to embody and display, not the general feelings of men, but the character and feelings peculiar to individuals of the human species. In the first, the importance or mystery of the plot and incidents excites our regard of the actors, because we believe they are men. In the second,

the characters of the actors, which convinces us that they are men, and introduces them as individuals to our acquaintance, renders the circumstances in which they are placed, engaging and entertaining.

That interest of incident and development of individual character, are never combined in perfection, nor even mutually cultivated to any considerable height, we know to be true, and we believe we can account for. Incidents of great moment, which involve the fates of the actors, and, necessarily excite the strongest feelings of which human nature is susceptible, have a tendency to confound the nice distinctions of character, which the ordinary condition of human affairs exhibit; they produce those simple feelings, which are nearly the same in every heart, which we easily divine and sympathize with, without knowing more of the persons exposed to them, than that they are human beings; and which, in short, are the results of general nature, and not of those varieties of particular constitution which form individual character. On the other hand, in order to exhibit and give full scope to all the peculiarities of an individual character, either in real life, or in fictitious representations of it, the person to whom it belongs must be placed, not in circumstances so dissimilar to his ordinary situation, as to excite only the pure and unmixed feelings of his general nature, in which all men resemble each other, without reference to the peculiarities of feeling and opinion, which his ordinary and individual habits produce; but in circumstances so related to his ordinary feelings, and of such ordinary interest as to give scope to the acquired peculiarities of his character, and permit them to modify and influence his conduct and language. The varieties of character which extraordinary occurrences have a tendency to blend and confound, are exhibited by ordinary circumstances and motives. The greater number of men would act in a very similar manner, and betray and excite very nearly the same feelings if marching to battle, guarded to a scaffold, or summoned to the death bed of a beloved and only child; but how different would every individual appear from the rest, and what diversified regards would they experience, if assembled in a drawing room, a tavern, or a public promenade. All the artificial hues with which affectation, vanity, and vulgarity, in varied shapes and gradations, would vary their appearance in the latter class of circumstances,

would disappear in the former, and be drowned in that overpowering common light, which the strong feelings of general nature would diffuse over them.

Montesquieu has observed, somewhere, that despotism represses those multiformities and peculiarities of thought and expression, which the surface of a free country exhibits; that it has a tendency to extinguish natural character, and that, hence, the language of slaves is every where the same. The observation appears, to us, strikingly just, and applicable equally to moral and political slavery—to the tyranny of the passions, as well as to the bondage of laws or despots. We must trespass on the patience of our readers, in order to illustrate, a little further, this interesting subject.

The two great influencing causes of human character are, natural constitution, and national peculiarity. The first, gives a common character to the species; the second, operating on this general character, modifies and diversifies its appearance over the world. Natural character unites all mankind under the same moral dominion, and maintains it by the most powerful feelings of which human nature is susceptible. National character exerts a less extensive and subordinate influence, and divides the species into great classes, whose peculiar characters arise from the peculiarities of their physical situation, their political constitutions, and the condition of literature and religion among them; and which are again subdivided, in an infinite degree, by ramifications of the same subordinate influence, in the shape of rank, profession, sects, local institutions and habits, and other peculiarities, which are impossible to enumerate, and whose operation it would be difficult to define. Provincial and professional distinctions, exert a slight, but very varied influence on the minds of men, and by creating innumerable peculiarities of thought and disposition, give the most perfect individuality to each member of the species. National distinctions have a more extensive influence, and may be considered either as dividing the species, or collecting individuals into great classes, of which the members, by their *esprit de corps*, resemble each other, and differ from the members of other classes. But natural constitution exerts the most powerful and extensive dominion, and assimilates all the members of the species. Savages are almost every where the same; for the government, religion, and state of knowledge of savage tribes, the great moral springs of

national character, as well as the pursuits and modes of life of the individuals of such tribes, the sources of provincial distinctions, are almost universally the same. The rise and early progress of civilization among nations, diversify the characters of both classes of men and of individuals, by enlarging and multiplying distinctions of government, religion, rank, wealth, interest, knowledge and occupation, and of all the other artificial sources of temper, disposition and opinion.

These artificial sources of distinction do not wholly subdue the natural character of men or supersede its dominion; they merely regulate and modify it on common occasions. They discover their influence in the ordinary circumstances in which men are placed, and which give scope to all the peculiarities of the individual, and not in those important and extraordinary situations in which the peculiarities of character are sunk, and suspended, and the predominating common feelings of general nature excited in their genuine unmixed state. The language of strong passion and the conduct of men in those interesting and uncommon situations which beget strong passions, are the genuine productions of nature, and are pretty nearly the same every where. On such occasions their feelings are roused to a degree of violence that rejects the regulating and modifying influence of the artificial peculiarities that distinguish men's characters in ordinary life. The influence on individuals of genuine natural character is like the influence on classes of men of the general right of mankind to govern themselves; which happily is never exerted by any nation or class of men but in the rare and extraordinary emergencies which, the influence of its peculiar constitution is unfit or inadequate to controul. The ordinary course of affairs in states gives scope to the peculiarities of their several political institutions, and confines every class of men to the particular and regulated privileges, it derives from the particular constitution of its government. But in certain rare and great exigencies the peculiarities of political institutions disappear; and in place of the peculiar privileges derived from them, nations assume for awhile the genuine unrestricted rights they enjoy in common with all the other members of the human race. Similar to this, as we have already observed, is the comparative influence of ordinary and extraordinary circumstances in the character and conduct of individuals. It is those ordinary circumstances which address men as citizens of a particular state, members

of a particular sect, profession, or faction, or which are otherwise connected with the peculiar moral or physical locality of the persons to whom they occur, that exhibit the greatest diversities of human conduct, and the most perfect individuality of character, of which every man is susceptible. But extraordinary circumstances, which have little or no reference to prior and ordinary occurrences and habitual feelings, and which address themselves to men, more as members of a species than as individuals, exhibit only the general character that belongs to the species.

It may possibly occur, in objection to the justness of these positions, that there exist certain great and striking characters, to which the rank of individuality cannot be refused, who are calculated exclusively, for important and interesting situations, and incapable of being fully manifested in any others. Without encumbering the present discussion with our sentiments relative to the exclusive adaptation of any character, for great and important circumstances (a doctrine that has proved the ruin and the consolation of many fools), it is sufficient to answer to the objection we have anticipated, that the general considerations we have now submitted, are framed in conformity with the general rule of life, and apply not to such characters as are exceptions from it, but to the characters which are examples of it, which abound in the world, and are generally understood, and which we think are the only proper subjects of novels. Such extraordinary minds as those of heroes and statesmen, whose ordinary pursuit is important enterprize, and to whom great emergency becomes almost habitual, are subjects beyond the legitimate province of the novelist, and belong, exclusively (in literary property), to historians and poets. Why they ought to be sacredly abstained from, by novelists, we shall take occasion to shew, in a future article. The only instance in which we have been disposed to wish any present from the admirable pen of Miss Edgeworth, different from what it actually is, occurs in her late novel, in which, even her uncommonly able management of the characters of heroes and statesmen, does not reconcile us to her usurpation of subjects so far beyond the limits of her proper department.

These remarks, though necessarily very general and imperfect, will, we trust, be sufficient to illustrate the position we have maintained, that a combination of much interesting

and momentous incident, with the development of much individual character, can occur neither in real life, nor in fictitious representations of it. Hence it happens, in novels, that the individuality, and, consequently, the attraction of the characters they exhibit, generally lessens in proportion to the interest and importance of the plots and situations they relate. The novels which we would rank in the first class of excellence, are those, in which the delineation of individual character is most complete, and in which the incidents are subordinate to this purpose, and principally interesting from contributing to it. Accordingly, the novels which we consider the best in the English language, which promise to live the longest, and are read the most, are productions of this description, and tend rather to afford amusement by delineation of character, than to excite interest by the attraction of plot and incident. It is undoubtedly true, that development of character sometimes produces interest, as well as amusement, and that narration of incident sometimes affords amusement, as well as interest. But the first is principally calculated for amusement, and the second for interest; and in order to avoid multiplicity of terms, we have distinguished the effect of the one operation from that of the other, not by what it exclusively possesses, but by the quality which preponderates in it and is faint or rare in the other.

Of late years the practice of novelists (with a very few illustrious exceptions) has had a tendency opposite to that which we think conducts to the highest excellence. The delineation of amusing character has been sacrificed to the interesting occurrences; and the great majority of recent novelists instead of attracting our attention to the scenes they describe, by familiarizing us with the actors in those scenes and attaching us to their postures, endeavour to interest us in the actors by the intrinsic importance and attraction of the situations into which they conduct them. The generality of recent novels are more calculated to excite the serious and strong emotions arising from sympathy with mysterious apprehension, anxiety, and suspense, than the gayer and more lively feelings arising from the contemplation of delicate, elegant, ridiculous or humorous converse or demeanour. That the first of these objects is more easily attainable than the second, a little reflection or a little experience sufficiently shews. In every description

of intercourse between minds (and in none more than in literary communication) it is more easy to excite interest than to afford amusement. Our capacity of being interested is less fastidious and more fully and constantly awake than our appetite of amusement. On all occasions we find it requires a far greater, and far rarer talent to excite and maintain in men, feelings of mirth, good humour, gaiety, curiosity, and the others which we call amusing, than to excite such emotions as apprehension, indignation, grief, suspense, and others which we call interesting. Every mind is subject to vicissitudes of temperament during which it is incapable of receiving amusement from any source whatever; but we can scarcely imagine that situation of mind in which either the spectacle or the description of an execution, a battle, or the struggles and terror of a man perishing in the water would not agitate the heart. Nay, so extensive is our susceptibility of interest in the occurrences that are said to befall men, that is is excited and impressed even by narrations of incidents which we clearly perceive to be utterly impossible. Nobody believes even the possibility of such incidents as are recounted by Mrs. Radcliffe, or in the 'Castle of Otranto'—yet nobody can read them without emotion. The novelist therefore who endeavours to excite interest by combinations of interesting incidents, applies to feeling, always craving excitation, and capable of being excited in a great variety of ways. On the other hand, the writer who seeks to afford amusement by delineation of character, addresses feelings more indolent and fastidious, and to gain this more difficult object, adopts less pliable means. The amusement we receive from exhibitions of fictitious characters, is not only proportioned to their probability but absolutely dependant on it. We are never amused with a character which is plainly unnatural. While the scope of invention is thus more unlimited in combinations of interesting incident, than in delineations of amusing character, a slighter degree of excellence will please in the first, than will be tolerated in the second. The first seems to possess more claims to our attention than the second, and mediocrity of merit is always more readily excused in it. The observation of Horace on the comparative difficulty and popularity of tragedy and comedy, may be extended to the competition of all productions of a serious and cheerful tendency,

—————' habet comedia tanto
Plus oneris quantum veniæ minus.'

In illustration of these remarks, we may observe that, for one writer who has *succeeded* in affording amusement by exhibiting fictitious character, there are ten who have succeeded in attracting attention, and inflaming interest, by recounting fictitious incidents. The comparative difficulty of the two operations must always have rendered the first most eligible to novelists; and their partiality has been of late years strengthened by the increase of the difficulties attending the delineation of natural character.

We are far from thinking that former novelists *pourtrayed* all the combinations of character which are adapted for exhibition, and calculated to afford amusement in productions of this description. The minds of men are more varied than their faces; yet it has never been imagined that all the fancy paintings which artists have produced, have nearly exhausted all the agreeable combinations of which the human features are susceptible. A great French writer in his treatise on the nature of the subject adapted for comedy has asserted that every character that occurs in nature, would afford amusement in a faithful representation. We are not prepared to assent to this position in its utmost latitude. It seems to us that as there are faces and figures which would afford neither good subjects nor good features for the pencil or the fancy painter; so there are in nature combinations of moral features, of which neither the parts nor the results are adapted for the pens of the novelist or dramatist. But even with this exception the productions of attractive character, exhibited in nature and capable of affording materials for the moral painter, are certainly inexhaustible. The more genius and observation a writer has, and the more extensive his converse with the world, the more he will be sensible of this truth. 'Men of inactive minds, and limited capacity or practice of observation,' says an accomplished and sagacious French critic, 'find a uniformity in the characters of mankind, which appear varied and diversified to men who possess greater penetration and enjoy wider intercourse with the world; at a first view and careless inspection leads men to believe that there is a sameness in the faces of blacks, which more familiar acquaintance and more accurate survey, shew to be as various and dissimilar as the faces of men of our own colour.' 'A writer of genius and penetration, pursues this great critic, 'finds the world peopled with innumerable attractive originals, all distinct from each other; and in his

attempts to copy them, seizes at once the traits which are characteristic of each individual, and which less practised and ingenious observers, are unable to separate from vulgar and common-place features which may appear in the character but are not its peculiar attributes.' A painter of genius, we believe, always produces better portraits as he advances in life; his increased accuracy and refinement of observation enabling him to discern and appreciate distinctions which formerly escaped him. In the same manner an ingenious observer and delineator of character, as he enlarges his survey and improves his accuracy, corrects his first impression of the uniformity of men's minds, and concludes at last with Boileau, that,

' La nature féconde en bizarre portraits,
Dans chaque âme est marqué à de différens traits,
Un goût le découvre, un rien la fait paroître
Mais tout mortel n'a pas des yeux pour la connoître.'

But although the mines of character from which the novelist may enrich his productions remain unexhausted, the difficulties attending the extraction of subjects from them have long been gradually increasing and continue daily to accumulate. We have already observed that the progress of *early* civilization tends to render diversities and peculiarities of character more general and more perceptible. But after a certain point the farther advancement of civilization appears to efface the distinctions it formerly created to blend and assimilate the characters previously diversified and distinguished. The increased facility of physical and moral communication between all the parts of an empire, and all the classes of its inhabitants, attending the later progress of civilization, equalizes the influence of government and learning throughout the empire—effaces the minor peculiarities of local and professional manners and opinions; and thus far assimilates the characters of all the classes and members of the community. After learning reaches a certain height its tendency becomes more diffusive than progressive; and that which once constituted a mighty source of distinction between the members of society, comes at last to extinguish peculiarities and level distinctions. To delineate fully all the effects of perfect civilization would lead us far beyond the limits of this article.

Even although the perfection of civilization should not operate so great an *actual* assimilation of the characters of

mankind as our imperfect survey might lead to believe, it would still augment the difficulties attending the delineation of character by the *apparent* generalization which it undeniably produces, through the increase and diffusion of the influence of fashion which attends it. The observation and detection of character must increase in difficulty in proportion to the prevalence of fashion, which, though it should not extinguish nature, represses its indications, substitutes uniformity for particularity of manner, and supplants traits of peculiar character by marks of general breeding.

Although we may not have satisfactorily demonstrated the cause, our statement of the result is unquestionably correct. It seems now, for the reasons we have mentioned, more difficult than formerly to delineate character; and certainly, for some time past, the successful attempts to perform this operation have been comparatively rare. Notwithstanding the great examples afforded by the recent exertions of such illustrious novelists of the first class as Moore, Burney and Edgeworth, by far the greater number of recent novels depend, for their attraction, almost entirely on the interest of their plots and incidents, and very little, if at all, on the merit of the characters belonging to the personages they introduce. The work before us, which we are informed is the production of Miss Aikin, belongs to this description; and though the general character under which we class it, be not eminently our favourite, it is here carried to such excellence that it is impossible to withhold our approbation. This performance does not belong to what we conceive the first and highest class of novels; but it is one of the best we have seen, for a long time, of the second. Not one of the personages it introduces is made known to us otherwise than by adventures and accidents, which might as well have occurred to any other of the human species, and which neither arise from, nor exhibit, peculiarity of character, or by such faint and general sketches of character as are utterly insufficient to discriminate him from any other member of the vast family of mankind. That the *hero* of the tale should not possess a very natural and yet peculiar character, must never in any instance be wondered at. Novelists in general are so much afraid of their hero appearing ordinary, that they rarely suffer him to appear natural; and hence the generality of novel heroes are devoid of natural and peculiar character. The hero of a novel is, in general, either a marvelously regular and orderly personage, so compounded of the best

features in many men's characters, that he rather represents the worth of a whole species, than resembles any individual member of it, or is so furiously peculiar from the distortion of some of his features, as to be an individual indeed, but without a living peer or brother, to differ not from other men but from all men. *(To be continued.)*

ART. IX.—*A Treatise on Diamonds and Precious Stones*; including their natural and commercial history; to which is added some account of the best methods of cutting and polishing them. By John Mawe, author of *Travels through the Diamond district of Brazil, &c.* Dedicated by permission to the Prince Regent. 1 vol. Octavo. with plates. pp. 166. Longman and Co. 1813.

The diamond is decidedly the most beautiful production of the mineral kingdom; it possesses the greatest degree of transparency; it is the hardest, and most brilliant of all the precious stones, and has been known from the remotest ages. Diamonds we believe, are only to be found in the East Indies, and in the Brazils. Our author, therefore, appears before us, under peculiar advantages, from the circumstance of his having travelled through the latter country, which is rich beyond comparison in its mineral productions; and the protection of his royal highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, enabled him to explore it under peculiar advantages.

Diamonds, when in their rough state, are either in the form of roundish pebbles, with shining surfaces, or of octahedral crystals, they are usually, covered with a thin crust which renders them semi-transparent; but when this is removed, they become wholly transparent. The principal diamond mines in India, are, that of Raolconda in the Carnatic; that of Somelpour, or Goual, in Bengal; and that of Succadana in the island of Borneo. For those in Brazil, we shall consult the volume before us. The chief care in purchasing rough diamonds relates to their colour, cleanness, and shape. With respect to colour, it should be perfectly crystalline, resembling a drop of clear spring water, in the middle of which a strong light may be discovered playing with a great deal of spirit. If the coat be smooth and bright with a little tincture of green, it is not the worse, and seldom proves bad; but if there is a mixture of yellow with green, then it behoves the purchaser to beware of the stone; it has a soft greasy substance, and will prove bad. There are various other signs and tokens by which the value of diamonds are

recognised by a lapidary. A tarif has been made by M. Jefferies, which, by arithmetical calculation, will give the value of diamonds, of whatever weights they may be. What says the object of our review.

He tells us, that being desirous to present to the amateurs, of gems and other precious stones, a popular and useful history of those valuable substances, he has carefully selected from the systematic works of highest authority, the most important technical characters, by which each species is distinguished; and has added, from various sources, but more particularly from his own observation and experience, such further particulars relative to their commercial history, as well as to their adaptation in ornamental jewellery, as he considers to be most generally interesting. And, in consequence of the high consideration attached to colour, as an essential character to gems, both by the wearers of them, and those who deal in them, he has annexed a few colored plates to shew, that although certain suites of colors belong to particular species; yet each species admits only certain variety of tint. These varieties he distinguishes. His opening of the first chapter is as singular as it is well founded.

‘ There are few things in the history of the human race, that at first sight, appear so remarkable, as the prodigious value which, by common consent in all ages, and in all civilized countries, has been attached to the diamond. That a house with a large estate, the means of living not only at ease, but in splendour, should be set in competition with, and even be deemed inadequate to the purchase of, a transparent chrystallized stone, not half the size of a hen's egg, seems almost a kind of insanity. And it would, indeed, truly deserve this name, if the purchaser parted with what the seller acquired by such a transfer. If for the consciousness of possessing a diamond almost three quarters of an ounce in weight, a country gentleman were to pay ninety thousand pounds in ready money, and an annuity of four thousand pounds beside, he would very deservedly run some risk of a statute of lunacy; yet, not only the above sum, but a patent of nobility with the bargain, was given by the Empress Catharine of Russia, for the famous diamond of Nadyr Shah. But, in this case, although the seller acquired much, the purchaser underwent no personal privation; and, in fact, notwithstanding the costliness and high estimation of diamonds, they are not really put in competition with the substantial comforts and conveniences of life. Among ornaments and luxuries, however, they unquestionably occupy, and have ever occupied, the highest rank.

Even fashion, proverbially capricious as she is, has remained steady in this, one of her earliest attachments, during, probably, three or four thousand years.—‘The beauty of this gem, depending on its unrivalled lustre, is no doubt the circumstance which originally brought it into notice, and still contributes, very materially, to uphold it in public estimation; and, certainly, notwithstanding the smallness of its bulk, there is no substance, natural or artificial, that can sustain any comparison with it in this respect. The vivid and various refractions of the opal, the refreshing tint of the emerald, the singular and beautiful light that streams from the six rayed star of the girasol, the various colors, combined with high lustre, that distinguish the ruby, the sapphire, and the topaz; beautiful as they are, upon a near inspection, are almost entirely lost to the distant beholder; whereas, the diamond, without any essential color of its own, imbibes the pure solar ray, and then reflects it, either with undiminished intensity, too white, and too vivid to be sustained for more than an instant by the most insensible eye, or decomposed, by refraction, unto those prismatic colors which paint the rainbow and the clouds, of morning and of evening, combined with a brilliancy which yields, and hardly yields, to that of the meridian sun. Other gems inserted into rings and bracelets, are best seen by the wearer; and if they attract the notice of bystanders, they divide the attention and withdraw those regards, which ought to be centered on the person, to the merely accessory ornaments. The diamond, on the contrary, whether blazing on the crown of state, or diffusing its starry radiance from the breast of titled merit; or, in courts and feasts and high solemnities, wreathing itself with the hair, illustrating the shape and color of the neck, and entering ambitiously into contest with the living lustre of those eyes, that ‘rain influence’ on all beholders, blends harmoniously with the general effect, and proclaims to the most distant ring, of the surrounding crowd, the person of the monarch—of the knight—or, of the beauty.’

By thus describing the properties, value, and brilliancy of the diamond, our author unfolds to our contemplation a grand incentive to political, and other temptations. A diamond of extraordinary size and beauty may be craftily offered to the acceptance of a Minister, to whom it would be impossible to propose a bribe in any other shape; and we know, that female vanities are often lured from the precepts of their better genius, prudence, by the acceptance of a bauble which would excite the envy of all their rival contemporaries, and give them pre-eminence in a brilliant assembly. The Regent diamond of France, he tells us, if report say true, was played

with so much success by the wily Seges before the sovereign of Prussia, as to produce for the service of France 40,000 horses with their equipments. Its influence on the mind of the possessor, he, as strongly, represents in an anecdote of Prince Potemkin, a man who, beyond precedent, had exhausted, by turns, all the sensualities of high and low life; and revelled in the unbounded possession of military command, of rank, and of political influence. Yet, this man, fatigued with the sameness of possession in these splendid distinctions, found his resource, through the tedium of his latter days, in sitting whole hours at a time, feasting his eyes with the brilliant display of his magnificent collection of diamonds.

‘From the time of Pliny,’ continues our author, ‘till about two centuries ago, there was little, if any, addition made to the true history of the diamond, although the occult qualities and superstitious uses of this gem were largely dilated upon by the Arabian Alchemists, and their followers in Europe. In 1609, Boëtius de Boot published his valuable treatise *de lapidis and gemmis*,—which contains a detailed account of all that was previously known, or imagined concerning the diamond, accompanied by his own observations and remarks.’—‘Since the publication of the above treatise to the present day, the attention of chemists, of chrysallographers, and of mineralogists, has been, on various occasions drawn to this gem; the most intelligent of our travellers into those parts of the world where diamonds are procured, have also furnished several interesting particulars respecting the natural and commercial history of this substance, so that, at present, but little remains to be added to our knowledge on this head.’

These particulars form the system of arrangement, of this work. They are explained with conciseness and perspicuity; and evince much personal observation, as well as scientific research in the ingenious compilers. It will be admitted, that this undertaking, whatever its general influence, is highly important to the dealer and to the amateur; that few people could have undertaken the compilement of such a history; and, that it will form a valuable record in the libraries of the virtuosi. The remainder of the volume is devoted to explanations on the physical and chemical characters of the diamond—their chemical properties and analysis—localities, and geological situation—notice of some particular diamonds—commercial history—art of cutting and polishing diamonds;—

oriental ruby, sapphire, oriental amethyst, and topaz, ruby, Spinelle, and balais; emerald, chrysobery topaz; chrysolite, aqua marie, tourmaline, hyacinth, and jargoon, opal, amethyst, rock chrystal, garnet, felpsar, adularia, Labrador spar, and cat's eye, turquois, lapis lazuli, crysopraxe, semi opal cornelian, sardonyx, agate, jasper.

ART. X—*Outlines of the Anatomy of the Human Body*, in its sound and diseased state, by Alexander Munro, Junior, MD. FRS. professor of medicine, anatomy and surgery, in the university of Edinburgh. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians; and one of the Physicians to the General Dispensary of Edinburgh. 3 vols. 8vo. pp. 568. 376. 585. with one volume of plates. Longman, &c. 1813.

THIS work is avowedly compiled from the accumulated experience, observations and experiments of three successive generations: the materials being collected partly by the grandfather and father of the author, and partly by the author himself. The name of Munro, has long been celebrated in the annals of anatomical science; and the volumes now before us are certainly calculated to add to that celebrity. To the student and young practitioner, they are inestimable; and the most experienced of the faculty will peruse them with pleasure and profit, on account of the new and well authenticated facts which they contain: the indefatigable researches of the author, with those of his immediate ancestors, have discovered some minute parts of the human frame, which have not been described by antecedent anatomists; and their very extensive practice in Edinburgh, the most celebrated school of medicine in the universe, has made them acquainted with some forms of morbid anatomy, unique, curious, and well worthy observation.

On the interesting subject of the stomach, intestinal canal, and abdominal viscera, this scientific author does not confine himself to mere anatomical description, but explains their important functions with accuracy, and furnishes us with new facts; he corrects the erroneous denomination of 'the cavity of the abdomen,' because in fact, he says, there is no cavity; for the parietes of the abdomen, and their contents, are in immediate contact, and constantly act and re-act upon each other.'

Few medical men have had opportunities of observing the contents of the stomach, in a living subject; nor does our author pretend to have had such an opportunity; but he furnishes us with a well authenticated case, in which it occurred, and its result; as this must be a subject of curiosity and interest to every scientific reader, whatever his profession or pursuits in life may be, we shall give it in the author's own words.

‘ Richeraud has related a very interesting case, in which there was a considerable opening in the stomach, in consequence of an injury. The patient, when received into the Charité, ate three times as much as ordinary; and had a stool once in three days. But three or four hours after a meal, she felt an irresistible desire to remove the dressing from the stomach, to allow the food to escape, *which was converted into a greyish paste, and had a faint odour, but was neither acid nor alkaline.*

‘ The contents of this patient's stomach were accurately examined, and it was found that there was an increase of jelly; a substance like fibrine was formed, also a considerable proportion of muriate and phosphate of soda, and of phosphate of lime. In the morning the stomach contained a quantity of thick frothy liquid, resembling saliva, in which there were several albuminous flocculi. By chemical analysis, the above fluid was found to be similar to saliva.

‘ The patient dragged on a miserable existence; was greatly emaciated, being imperfectly supported by the small quantity of food which passed through the Pylorus, and the small quantity which was taken up by the absorbents of the stomach.’

This work is illustrated by a series of forty-six engravings, making a fourth volume; many of those, which delineate subjects of morbid anatomy, are unique; the whole are accurately drawn, well engraved, and are, where essential to a clear comprehension, judiciously colored: in short, the merits of the work, altogether, are such, that we feel persuaded, it will soon become the manual of every medical student, and a book of reference to every practitioner. We should injure this work, by attempting to select passages for our insertion. It is complete in all its component parts; and the web of science is so admirably woven, that the whole must be studied for the discovery of beauties in the general fabric. It is highly interesting to the honour of our country, to find surgery assume so prominent a rank in the profession.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

RELIGION.

ART. 11.—*The Lives of the Puritans*; containing a biographical account of those divines who distinguished themselves in the cause of religious liberty, from the reformation, under Queen Elizabeth, to the Act of Uniformity, 1662. By Benjamin Brooke. 3 vol. Pp. 452, 570, 540. Octavo. Price £1. 16s. James Black. 1813.

THE motto to this work tells us, from Hume, that ‘the precious spark of liberty had been kindled, and was preserved by the Puritans alone; and it was to this sect, that the English owe the whole freedom of their constitution.’

An assertion so positive, and from an authority so esteemed, may be considered a letter of recommendation to this work, which is addressed to the rising generation, among the various denominations of protestants, as a history well calculated to engage their attention, to affect their feelings, to deepen their best impressions, to invigorate their noblest resolutions, and, finally, that the Puritans were a race of men, of whom the world was not worthy: that they devoted their days and nights to hard study, cherished devotional feelings, and enjoyed intimate communion with God!

We learn, however, from our own reading, that during the distracted reign of Charles I. the puritans seized the reins of government; and that, from the affected meekness and inoffensiveness of their dispositions, they assumed the name of *puritans*, and, under that cloak, forcibly established new forms and regulations of their own creating.

Our author begins his tale of sanctity, with the popish darkness that overspread the whole island of Britain, previously to the accession of Henry VIII.,—days of ignorance, superstition, immorality, and persecution. He pursues his remarks to the reign of Queen Mary, who overturned the reformation, and restored the whole body of popery.

This was, indeed, the age of religious martyrdom! the light of English reformation was not, however, extinguished; the accession of Queen Elizabeth re-invigorated the flame. Eventful changes of succeeding reigns, are chronologically detailed, up to the Act of Uniformity.

Having afforded this sketch to the reader, individual taste will best decide as to the interest it may take in perusing a dry, voluminous work, compiled with great labour and prolixity; but, we doubt not, with very pious motives.

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ART. 12.—*The Proofs of the Spirit*; or considerations on revivalism: a Sermon preached at St. Mary's chapel, Penzance, on Sunday, April 24, 1814, by C. Val. Le Grice, M. A. Pp. 36. Rivington. 1814.

'THE observations in this discourse, are occasioned by a process denominated a revival, lately introduced into this town, among the people called methodists.' For the propriety of the allusions in it the author contents himself with referring to the earnest wish of his congregation for its publication, and to their voluntary and liberal offers towards defraying the expence; and forbears from entering into a detail of circumstances, which have given offence to very many respectable persons among the methodists themselves.

ART. 13.—*An Enquiry* into the antiquity of the Sabbath, chiefly with reference to the opinion of Dr. Paley. A Sermon preached at the visitation of the Right Rev. the Lord Bishop of Lincoln, held at Caister, June 29, 1812, by Wm Cooper, B. D. rector of West Rasen and Wadingham, and late fellow and tutor of St. John's college, Cambridge. Rivington, &c. 1814.

FEW scriptural doctrines are so universally acknowledged, and so little revered, as the text of this discourse. 'And God blessed the seventh day, and sanctified it; because that in it he had rested from all his works which God created and made.' Gen. 11. 3.

This is a sensible, manly, inquiry, into the origin of the commemoration of the Lord's day.

ART. 14.—*An Examination* of the Case of the Penitent on the Cross, and of the inferences from it. A Sermon, lately preached before the university. By William Cooper, B. D. author of the preceding discourse.

THIS gentleman's style is morally argumentative, without any affectation of piety; and his conclusions are just, sensible, and impressive.

POLITICS.

ART. 15.—*Recueil de Décrets, Ordonnances, Traités de Paix, Manifestes, Proclamations, Discours, &c. &c. de Napoleon Buonaparte, et des membres du gouvernement Français, depuis le 18 Brumaire, An 8 (November, 1799), jusqu'à l'année 1812, inclusivement. Extraits du Moniteur, par Lewis Goldsmith, notaire. 4 tom. Pp. 1222, 950, 754, 903: avec Index général, par ordre alphabétique. Harper, le jeune. 1813.*

It would appear, that Mr. Goldsmith, a person well known as a political writer, has been induced to enter upon this heavy compila-

tion, from the success which attended a former publication of similar materials; and he trusts that his collection will be received as an object of equal interest and utility, by all public or political characters throughout the globe.

We have, however, to fear, that he may be ill-requited for the great expences of this work. At the time, it is true, of its issuing from the press, it was not within the calculation of human events, that so wonderful a change could so suddenly have destroyed tyranny, and have given the blessings of peace to Europe. Had Mr. Goldsmith, indeed, furnished us with a view of the secret policy by which Buonaparte had achieved the miraculous adventures of his progressive strides to the throne, curiosity might greatly have been tempted to peep into the heart of the now fallen, abject, human being, who, in the hour of prosperity, almost arrogated the attributes of a god.

The materials he has furnished may, probably, be useful to an historian, for the information of future ages, but do not bid fair, in our opinion, to be objects of much curiosity at the present day.

EDUCATION.

ART. 16.—*A Grammar of the English Language*, containing a complete summary of its rules, with an elucidation of the general principles of elegant and correct diction, accompanied with critical and explanatory notes, questions for examination, and appropriate exercises. By John Grant. 1 vol. 12mo. Pp. 410. Sherwood, Neely, and Jones. 1813.

THE number and variety of our English grammars, might almost deter any one from adventuring upon an attempt at novelty on that subject. Yet the fashion of our language is so subject to change, that a new grammarian is almost as requisite as a new dancing master. We do not, by this assertion, mean to attack the principles of grammar; but orthography and pronunciation are as variable as the seasons.

Mr. Lindley Murray's grammar, we believe, is much in use with teachers; but, in our mind, it is too classical in its composition, too scientific for the young beginner. It requires, in short, an intimacy with grammar, to admire his profound illustrations of that study.

Our author is extremely modest in his preface, and has classed his table of contents, with an accurate attention to the simplicity of the objects he has in view. We are much pleased with his arrangements and explanations, which we think well calculated for the perfect understanding of youth.

ART. 17.—*A French Dictionary*, on a plan entirely new, wherein all the words are so arranged and divided, as to render their pronunciation both easy and accurate. With an Index, pointing out the place of each, producing what, in the author's opinion, was necessary and wanting towards the perfect knowledge of this language. 1 vol. 12mo. Pp 214. Lackington, &c. 1814.

As a dictionary, we cannot view this little volume with approbation: The English student in the French language, will require infinity of explanations to assist him in his translations. Any difficulty, on this head, not only puzzles the learner, but often puts him out of humour with a pursuit, he finds more involved in intricacy than he had reason to expect. We would always recommend the best folio dictionaries. But if we are only to consider this book, as a vehicle to pronunciation, we shall be disposed to read it more favorably; confessing, notwithstanding, that perfect pronunciation can only be acquired by conversing with a native.

Mr. Smith, however, does much; he divides his words into syllables according to their pronunciation, accents the letters to be marked by emphasis, and leaves those letters in italics that are mute. His instructions begin with vocal sound, and are followed by explanatory tables, which teach the different shades of pronunciation.

The work will be useful to those who wish to acquire some knowledge of the French, without the expence of a master.

ART. 18.—*An English Hindoostanee Naval Dictionary*; of technical terms and Sea phrases; as also the various words of command given in working a ship, &c. with many sentences of great use at Sea; to which are prefixed, a short Grammar of the Hindoostanee Language: the whole calculated to enable the officers of the Honorable East India Company's and Country Service, to give their orders to the Lascars with that exactness and promptitude, which, upon many occasions, must prove of the greatest importance. By Lieutenant Thomas Roebuck, of the Madras Establishment, acting Examiner, and Assistant Secretary to the College of Fort William. 1 volume. 12mo. pp. 180. 7s. Black and Parry. 1813.

This professional little work was originally printed at Calcutta. It is peculiarly calculated to convey the essential and general utility set forth in the title page. The India shipping, during the latter years of the war, has been chiefly manned with Lascars; and the naval service is entered upon so early in life, that a knowledge of the Indian languages can scarcely be supposed to be within the limits of a sailor's education. The officers of the Company's service are therefore much indebted to Mr. Roebuck for the facilities they will derive from this pocket assistant, in giving their orders to Lascar seamen.

ART. 19.—*A Grammar of the Hindustani Language.* By John Shakespeare, professor of the oriental languages at the East India Company's military seminary. 1 volume. Small Quarto. pp. 191. £1. 1s. Black, Parry & Co. 1813.

This Grammar is avowedly written under the patronage of the Chairman and Directors of the East India Company, to whom it is dedicated. All elementary works have a general tendency to public good, and, when well compiled, are deservedly objects of public patronage.

Dr. Gilchrist, we believe, was the original publisher of a grammar of the Hindustani language, his proficiency in oriental literature is equally known and appreciated.

Mr. Shakespeare tells us, that it is in consequence of that gentleman's grammar being out of print, that he has ventured to supply the deficiency, under the united advantages of having acquired his information, relative to the principles of the Hindu language, as well from the Doctor's grammar, as from oriental instruction, most liberally and kindly communicated to him by that intelligent gentleman. This work has the advantage of being on a reduced scale, without prejudice to the material objects it proposes to define. The Indian characters are illustrated with great perspicuity, and the rules of instruction managed with facility and address.

POETRY.

ART. 20.—*Tears of the Novel Writers: or Fiction's Urn, a Satirical Poem.* Dedicated to James Mathias, Esq. Foolscap Octavo. pp. 61. 3s. 6d. John Souter. 1814.

THOSE who are not fastidious in their poetical taste, may find amusement in this volume. The author tells us, that, 'book-making's a cunning, learned knave:' his *tears* occupy twenty pages, (we rejoice he mourns no longer), and are followed by Epistles to certain celebrated Novel Writers. The best is addressed to Monk Lewis, in a strain intended to be imitative of that wonderful gentleman's WONDERFUL tales.

There is much truth in the two following lines:

'Thought leads to act—from trifling causes flow,
The streams of error in this world below.'

We observe in the dedication of this satire, the author of the Pursuits of Literature publicly avowed. The preface is written

with great freedom, and shews that the author has been accustomed to appear before the public in prose.

ART. 21.—*A Sketch from Nature. A Rural Poem. Pocket Volume.* pp. 53. Gale, Curtis, and Fenner, &c. 1814.

This beautiful little poem is the effusion of early genius. We lament that it is so limited; for notwithstanding the standard merits of 'Thomson's Seasons;' and the impressive simplicities of Bloomfield's 'Farmer's Boy,' the unknown author of this interesting trifle, has forcible claims upon the feelings, and applause of his reader.

We give a specimen of his descriptive talent.

* SUN-RISE.

*And now, the welcome ruler of the day
Ascends in genial splendour, and directs
His veering chariot tow'rd the southern steep
Of Heaven's blue-hill—Touch'd by his orient beam
A thousand vivid objects all around
Start into view, else unperceived: but chief,
With starry splendor on the hawthorn bough
And graceful wild-rose, shines the copious dew;
That precious lymph of nature, which dilates
The ruby lip of ev'ry infant bud,
And lavish on the level turf remains
In siler beauty; while the subtle tribe
Of spiders, by their glittering webs betray'd,
Like tented fairies cover all the field.
A new, thin scatter'd from the sparkling scene,
The last pale vestiges of night retire;
Till far, in western hemisphere, descends
The dim procession of her shadowy train.
Where are the throngs that boast a taste sublime?
Behold! a boundless theatre awaits
Your presence; ever beauteous scenes are spread;
With eloquence divine great nature speaks;
—Love, power, and wisdom infinite the theme—
And points to her creator—vain display!
In crowded cities lie their blissful haunts;
The stage commands, by fiction and by noise,
And ah! too often by congenial vice,
Their highest extacy—their loudest praise.'*

ART. 22.—*The Vision* ; or Hell Purgatory, and Paradise, of Dante Alieghieri, translated by the Rev H. F. Carey, A. M. 3 vols. Bagster, Price 12s. pp. 223, 212, 210. 18mo. 1814.

The study of the Italian Language ranks, so essentially among the accomplishments of the present day, that we apprehend those possessing the advantage of reading *Dante* in the original language, would never barter his chaste beauties, for the fanciful portrait of an English artist. The subject is sublime—not so the prevailing language of this translator.

ART. 23.—*The Orphans* ; or the Battle of Nevel's Cross. In five Cantos. 1 vol. 12mo. pp. 171. Price 7s. 6d. Cadel and Davies. 1814.

The subject of this poem leads us to imagine, that the author's muse has been awakened by his perusal of Mr. Walter Scott's poetical labours.

He is frequently pleasing in his description. We give an extract from the preparation for a battle.—

Lo! hurrying o'er the groaning ground,
That shaking gives back trampling sound,
Two mighty nations ; to the strife
Of fame, of glory, death and life!
Each, as their banner'd lions brave
And bold, that o'er them gallant wave.
Yonder see England's flout the sky!
There ramping, Scotland's, flung as high!
Flash upon flash, in brighter ray,
Is given the oriental day,
Reflected back from casques and spears
Thick bristling as autumnal ears:
As choose they the important ground,
Apparent every movement round,
By spear hedge, yet undim'd bright glancing
From wheeling—falling back—advancing—
Condensed, the solid column strengthening—
Shewing the line of battle lengthening—
Each point, each stratagem of art,
Too oft has foil'd both hand and heart.
This not alone can Hasting's tell,
How crimson'd Cressy, fought so well.

ART. 24.—*National Triumphs* ; by Mrs Cockle, author of *Simple Minstrelsy*, a collection of poems ; an elegy on Sir John Moore ; important studies for the female sex ; moral truths, or studies from natural history, &c. Octavo, pp. 31. Price 2s. 6d. Chapple. 1814.

The wreath of victory, when woven by the fair, adorns the hero's brow with more than ordinary grace.

This little poem, descriptive of the horrors of war, and the blessings of peace, is complimentary without being adulatory. Many of the sentiments do honor to the head and heart that dictated them. The authoress not only celebrates our own Wellington, but extends her admiration to Schwartzenberg, Blucher, and other distinguished heroes. A disconsolate mother's requiem to her departed child, is full of tenderness, and sweetly plaintive sorrows. Every parent will read it with melancholy pleasure.

ART. 25.—*An Ode to His Grace the Duke of Wellington, &c. &c.* by Ireneus. Octavo. p.p. 35. Sherwood, Neely and Jones. 1814.

Our British hero will receive many epistles, dedicatory, like the present. The author perhaps, feels better than he expresses his admiration. It is, at all events, an offering from the heart—and who shall censure so amiable an effort?

NOVELS.

ART. 26.—*Love and War; An historical Romance*, By Alexander Stiver. 2 volumes. 12mo. p.p. 239, 238. Price 12s. Sherwood, Neely, and Jones. 1814.

We understand this to be the first essay of an adventurer in the mazes of paper and print. We do not ever wish to repress industry; and would, therefore, refrain from harshly criticising this gentleman's *lucubrations*. As, however, we are not ingenious enough to discover whether his poetry be intended to imitate doggrel, Hudibrastic, or any known order of rhyme, we must confine our compliments to the *originality* of his muse. We find the story of a jealous Sultan, an amorous Sultana, and a captive count, which puts us so much in mind of an adventure in *Gil Blas*, that we apprehend originality is not among the excellencies of his prose. Those however, who love to dive into the varieties of novel writing; and prefer *quantity* to *quality* may read this book.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 27.—*Reason the true Arbiter of Language; Custom a Tyrant; or Intellect set free from Arbitrary Authority*: in which are shown the absurdities of grammar and rhetoric; their tendency to enslave the mind; the close connection between mental and political bondage; the injustice and impolicy of despotic authority. Octavo, pp. 152. Johnson and Co., 1814.

We have been a little at a loss to comprehend the design of the author of this work; and, in truth, to comprehend the work itself. At first we supposed him to be a wicked wight, who, either not caring for the honours of political martyrdom, had not thought it prudent to write what he considered the truth, or, dreading, if he wrote any thing short of a libel, that it would not sell, had thought proper to assume a garb of unique originality, and, like Rabelais, say what he pleased; on re-consideration, we have foregone our original notion. The reader shall have a specimen in the following extract: it is part of the author's address to his '*fancy*.'

'Lo these thirty years have I been with thee, through many a scene of inward and outward change! I have sat with thee and walked with thee many whole days, and waked with thee many whole nights, on mountain and plain, in cottage and mansion, in crowded city and in lonely wood. *I have shouted with thee in the madness of mirth, wept many streams of precious tears, or grieved with unutterable anguish.*

'When yet thou wast young, and knew not to speak thine own thoughts, I understood and felt what thou meant; whether thou wailed with thy widowed mother, and heard the sad tale of despair, that her son should visit academic bowers; singing in mournful strains of Babel's streams; looking up to the widow's stay and orphan's friend; the father of the fatherless in his holy habitation....our care forgotten thou turned thine ear to the toothless mouth of age, then thy sole oracle, *and listened the long winter evening to rude truth and bold fiction*; or fixed thine eye on the sacred page, and the rude life of the great hero, then thy sole library. For thou loved the bold and hardy face of nature, and men yet at large among nature's works. Thou loved not to hear the sickly strains of Chloe, or of gentlemen swains and lady milkmaids...heaving bosoms and fainting lovers, velvet lawns and flowery carpets, but preferred the wide field to the garden enclosed; the woods and wilds to the fields; the rugged mountain to the smooth plains; and the roaring torrent to the purling brook. And oft was thou in Judah's land, listening to the horn of the herdsmen of Tekoah, gazing with pleasing wonder on the bold image of nature, in the fountains of living waters and streams of Lebanon; or high on the mountains of Engedi, and thy locks filled with the drops of heaven, keeping watch by night. Now with thy sword girt upon thy thigh, because of the enemy; now grappling the paw of the lion and the bear; now with thy foot upon the neck of the proud Philistine. For thy delights were with the sons of freedom, and precious were their triumphs in thy sight. Thou joyfully went forth with Israel from the house of bondage, and sprang with Judah to take the harp from the willow, and loved to see his garments dyed red in blood of Bozrah,

‘The new born infant beyond the great water had thy fervent prayers; and thou wished, unchristian wish! on all who sought the child’s life.

‘But chiefly the place that gave thee birth, was the hallowed spot of thy fondest devotion; because the field of freedom’s battles and freedom’s victories. Thou would fight her battles o’er again, vicing even with the great hero to accept the proud challenge to single combat, spurring on thy steed with fearless valour, and with steady heart, and bold arm clearing the foe asunder. Or thou would haste as an eagle to the mountain to see o’er all the plain, where the armies of the aliens were put to flight, and the proud Roman was driven back.

‘I was with thee, too, when thou *caught the holy fervour*, and became of the *new creation*; when thou tasted the hidden manna and walked with angels in white. And oft was thou on cherubic wing, listening in the *third heavens* to unutterable things; or singing the new song to the response of seraphim. But when faith became weak, and doubt strong, then thou became bold to search for the secret record—to tie the gordian knot of three cords in one thread; which thou cut asunder because it could not be untied. And when thou was *tortured* as on the wheel of a tyrant to *find out the principle of the perpetual motion*; and the *construction of the lock on the adamantine gate*,—starting back with horror to gaze on the sun,—wondering if the same hand made both; for thou was in doubt.....But thou hated tyrants; and if God were a tyrant thou would hate God, and curse him to his face. If heaven were ruled by a co-equal and co-eternal trinity-ship of Neroes and Jefferieses, and Lauds, thou would rejoice to be in hell fighting against them.’

Our motives will probably be appreciated, for simply saying that this is one of the most singular books we ever took up.

ART. 28.—*An Olio of Bibliographical and literary Anecdotes, and Memoranda original and selected*; including Mr. Cole’s unpublished notes on the Rev. Jas. Bentham’s history and antiquities of Ely cathedral, by William Davies. 12mo. pp. 132. 5s. Rodwel, 1814.

Mr. Davis, in compassion to the prevailing hunger and thirst for Bibliographical knowledge, modestly offers his olio; which may be acceptable to those who have not feasted on the more substantial provisions furnished by the firm of Sir S. E. Brydges, Dibdin, Haslewood, and Co. Mr. Coles’s M. S. notes to Mr. Bentham’s very scarce, (until lately reprinted) history of Ely, conclude with a remarkable passage

‘Obstinacy and ignorance are often coupled. There never was a more forcible instance of it. It needed only to look in the face of James Bentham, and be struck with wonder that so good a book should come from such idiot appearance, to hear and see him open his mouth and talk to you, to be convinced that it was impossible for him to compose it. In short it was the work of his brother Edward, Divinity Professor at Oxford, whose custom it was every year, to spend a few months at Ely, where all the brothers and one sister met: such fraternal love and harmony never existed in a family: indeed they are all worthy people, who have every one’s good word; but are all Benthams, that is, not like other people. It was a common saying at Eton and Cambridge, ‘that God made men and women and the Herveys,’ (a species of man and woman) to whom many added the Benthams also, as they are as unlike in all their actions to the rest of mankind as it is possible to conceive, though without guile and quite inoffensive.’

We extract the following article for the purpose of adding to the value of our pages by the admirable speeches of two of our gallant forefathers who suffered a cruel sentence for using the press to communicate their opinions.

‘*The discoverie of the gaping gulph, wherein to England is like to be swallowed by a French Marriage, if the Lorde forbid not the Bands by letting her Majesty (Queen Elizabeth) see the sin and punishment thereof.* 1579.

‘This tract was elicited by the *incognito* visit of the Duke of Anjou to England, after the favourable receival of his proxy by the Queen. The author, John Stubbes, a member of Lincoln’s Inn; the publisher, William Page; and Hugh Singleton, the printer, were all three apprehended, tried, and sentenced to have their right hands cut off by a butcher’s knife and mallet. Never, I believe, was the courage and loyalty of Englishmen more strikingly exemplified than in the conduct of Stubbes and Page when brought to the scaffold to have the sentence put into execution, November 3, 1579. Singleton, by the interest of his friends, obtained a remittance of the sentence.

‘Stubbes addressing himself to the spectators, said:

‘What a grieffe it is to the bodie to lose one of its members; you all know, I am come hither to receive my punishment according to the laws. I am sorrie for the lose of my hand, and more sorie to lose it by judgment; but most of all with her Majestie’s indignation and evell opinion, whome I have soe highlie displeased. Before I was condemned, I might speak for my innocencie; but nowe my mouth it stopped by judgment, to the which I submitt myselfe, ame content patientlie to endure whatsoever it pleaseth God, of his secrett providence, to laie upon me and take it justlie deserved for my sinnes; and I pray God it maie be an example to you all, that it being so daunger-

ons to offend the laws without an evell meaninge, as breedeth the losse of a haund, you maie use your haunds holylie and praie to God for the longe preservation of her Majestie over youe, whom God hath used as an instrument for a longe peace and many blessings over us ; and speciallie for his Gospelle, whearby shee hath made a waie for us to rest and quiteness of our conciences. For the French I force not, but my greatest grieffe is, in soe many weekes and daies imprisonment, her Majestie hath not once thought me worthie of her mercie, which she hath oftentimes extended to divers persons in greater offences. For my haund I esteeme it not soe much, for I thinke I could have saved it, and might do yet ; but I will not have a guiltlesse harte and an infamous haunde. I praie youe all to praie with me, that God will strengthen me to endure and abide the paine that I ame to suffer, and graunt me this grace, that the losse of my haunde do not withdraw any part of my dutie and affection toward her Majestie, and because, when so many veines of bloude are opened it is uncertain howe they maie be stayed, and what wille be the event theirow. Then kneeling he continued, ' I beseeche youe all to praie for me, that it wolde please God to forgive me my sinnes ; and I crave pardon of all the world, and frelie forgive everie one that hath offended me, and soe with mercie to deale with me, that whether I live or die I may live or die his servaunt. My maisters, if their be any among youe that doe love me, if your love be not in God and her Majestie I utterlie denie your love.' The hand ready on the block to be stricken off, he said often to the people ' Praie for me, nowe mye calamitie is at hande.' At the end of these words his right hand was struck off when waving his hat with his remaining hand, he exclaimed,—' God save the Queen ! and immediately swooned.'

' Page next ascended the scaffold, and addressing himself to the by-standers, said :

' I am come hither to receive the lawe according to my judgment, and thanke God of all, and of this I take God to witness, that knoweth the hartes of all men, that, as I ame sorie I have offended her Majestie, so did I never mene harme to her highness's person, crown, or dignitie ; but have bene as trewe a subject as any was in England to my abilitie, except none ; Then holding up his right hand, ' This hand,' saide he ' did I put to plough and got my living by it many years. If it woulde have pleased her Highness to have pardoned it and have taken my left haund or my life she had delte more favourable with me, for nowe I have no meanes to live ; but God, which is the father of us all, will provide for me. I beseeche you all to praie for me, that I may take this punishment patientlie.' And so laying his hand upon the block, he prayed the executioner to perform his office as quickly as possible, who, at two blows, severed his hand from his arm, whereat lifting up the stump, he said to the people, ' I have left there a true Englishman's hand, and so went from the scaffold very stoutly and with great courage.'

LIST OF BOOKS.

NOTE.—bd. signifies *bound*—h. bd. *half-bound*—sd. *sewed*. The rest are, with few exception, *in boards*. ed. signifies *edition*—n. ed. *new edition*.

ANACREON in Dublin, with notes, 12mo. 8s.

Ayton's, (R.) Voyage round Great Britain, undertaken in the summer of 1813, and commencing from the Land's End, Cornwall. With a series of Views, illustrative of the character and prominent features of the coast, drawn and engraved by Mr. William Daniell, F. R. A. Nos. 1, to V, containing Views of Combe Martin; Lynmouth; Ilfracombe; Ilfracombe from Hilsborough; Hartland Pier; and Clovelly, North Devon; the Land's End; the Long-ships Lighthouse, off the Land's End; the entrance into Portreath; and Boscastle Pier, on the coast of Cornwall. 10s. 6d. each No.

Badham's (C. M.D.) Satires of Juvenal, translated into English verse. 8vo. 14s.

Barker's Drama Recorded, or a list of Plays, from the earliest period to the present time. 12mo. 7s. 6d. fine paper, 9s.

Barlow's (S. A.M.) History of Ireland, from the earliest period to the present time, 2 vols. 8vo. 17. 1s.

Berington's (Rev. Joseph) Literary History of the Middle Ages; comprehending an account of the state of learning, from the close of the reign of Augustus, to its revival in the 15th century. With two appendixes, replete with many curious particulars. 4to. 2l. 2s.

Blair's (Rev. D.) School Dictionary, third ed. 12mo. 3s.

Bloomfield's Works, 2 vols. 18mo. new ed. 8s.

Brown's (C.) General Catalogue of Books, 2s.

Burnett's (W. M.D.) Account of the bilious remittent fever of the Mediterranean. 8vo. 10s. 6d.

Burns' Poetical Works, a genuine edition, beautifully printed in a small pocket volume, with elegant vignette title and frontispiece, 24mo. 6s.

Cabronazos, (The) or a Spaniard in London, 2 vols. 12mo. 14s.

Calais to Paris (a survey of the road from) by L. Herbert, Geogra-

pher, and G. Dupont, Engineer, roy. 8vo. 9s.

Cappo's (Cath.) Thoughts on various charitable and other institutions and on the best mode of conducting them; with an Address to the Females of the rising generation, 3s.

Carpenter's (Lant, I.L.D.) two Discourses, delivered in George's Meeting-house, Exeter, on the 17th and 24th of April, 8vo. 1s. 6d.

Caulfield's (James) Calcographiana, the Printseller's Chronicle and Collector's Guide, 8vo. 15s.; l.p. 5l. 5s.

Chambaud's Dictionary, 2 vols. 4to. n. ed. 5l. 5s.

Chester's (Bishop of) Valedictory Address, delivered at a general meeting of the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge, on May 17, 1814, in the Name of the Society, to the Rt. Rev. Father in God, Thomas Fanshawe, Lord Bishop of Calcutta, previous to his departure for India; together with his Lordship's Reply.

Clarke's (J.) Corderii Colloquiorum Centuria Selecta, n. ed. 18mo. 1s. 6d. bd.

Classes and Orders of the Linnean System of Botany. Illustrated by select specimens of foreign and indigenous plants. part 1, roy. 8vo. 4s. col. 6s.

Dance's (G. R.A.) Collection of Portraits, sketched from life, and engraved by Wm. Daniell, A.R.A. Nos. XI. and XII. folio, 1l. 1s. each.

Daubeny's (Rev. C.) Discourse, giving a Churchman's reasons for declining a connection with the Bible Society; and most respectfully addressed to the Parent "Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge." 1s. 6d.

Debates at the East-India House, on the 4th of April, 1815, relative to an augmentation to the salary of the Directors, 3s. 6d.

Debates at the East-India House, on the 4th of May, 1814, on expired pensions; increasing the salary of Mr. W. McCulluck, and allowing a pension to Mr. R. Owen. 2s. 6d.

Dibdin's Collection of Songs, a new edition, containing the whole of the five volumes published by him. 2 vols. 18mo. 10s.

Dickson's (W. L.L.D.) Mitigation of Slavery, a work truly worthy of the consideration of the West-India planters and others, 8vo. 14s.

Elton's (C.) Specimens of Classic Poets, 3 vols. 8vo. 12. 16s.

Esquivella's (Don Manuel Alvarez) Letters from England, 3d ed. 3 vols. 12mo. 18s.

Explanations and Emendations of some passages in the text of Shakespeare, and of Beaumont & Fletcher, by Martinus Scribleri, 2s. 6d.

Farmers' Magazine, a periodical work, exclusively devoted to Agriculture and Rural Affairs. No. 58, continued quarterly, 3s.

Fernelyoung's (Rev. W. B.A.) Poems on various Occasions, 8vo. 9s.

Fisher (R.B.) on the Importance of the Cape of Good Hope, as a colony to Great Britain. 3s.

Forms for the Ready Calculation of the Longitude, with the Tables published by Joseph de Mendoza Rios, Esq. F.R.S. folio, 4s. sewed.

Glances at Character, 12mo. 10s. 6d.

Hamilton's (Sir W.) Outlines from the Greek, Roman, and Etruscan Vases, rev. 8vo. 12. 1s.

Graham's Letters on India, with nine Etchings, and a Map of the North of India, 8vo. 14s.

Gray's (T.) Works, to which are subjoined Extracts, philological, poetical, and critical, from the author's original manuscripts, selected and arranged by T. J. Mathias. 2 vols. royal 4to 7s. 7s. from 4to. 12s. 12s.

Greig's Ladies' Arithmetic, royal 18mo. 2s. 6d.

Hartung's (M. W. E. n) Marion of Drynarth: a Tale of Erin, in two cantos, 8vo. 7s.

Hawkins's (L. M.) Rosanne; or, a Father's Labour lost. 3 vols. 8vo. 12. 7s. by Letitia Matilda Hawkins.

Hess (J. I. Ven) on the value and utility of the freedom of the Hess-Towns. 8vo. 6s.

Hints to the Nervous and Debilitated. 12mo. 2s. 2d. n. ed.

Holy Bible, with Westall's designs, part 3, imp. 8vo. 12. 1s.

Index to the anatomical, medical, chirurgical, and physiological papers contained in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, from 1665 to 1817: chronologically and alphabetically arranged, with brief explanatory remarks. 4to. 10s. 6d. bds.

Inquirer: or, Literary Miscellany, No. 1. 9vo. 4s.

Jamieson's (I. D.D. F.R.S.E. F.S. A.S.) Hermes Scythicus: or, the radical affinities of the Greek and Latin languages to the Gothic: illustrated from the Meroo-Gothic, Anglo-Saxon, Frisian, Alemannic, Sclavo-Gothic, Islandic, &c. With a dissertation on the historical proofs of the Scythian origin of the Greeks, 8vo. 12s.

Keith's (T.) Elements of Plane Geometry, containing the first six books of Euclid, from the text of Dr. Simson, 8vo. 10s. 6d.

Kenney's (J.) Debtor and Creditor, a comedy, in five acts, 8vo. 2s. 6d. ad.

King's (Dr. Wm.) Life, Writings, and Remains, portrait, neat, 5s.

Lackington, Allen, and Co.'s Catalogue of Books, for the year 1814; part 2d, containing a very large collection of rare and curious books, tracts, and manuscripts, in astrology, witchcraft, poetry; including the drama, architecture, drawing, and sculpture: music, mathematics, natural and experimental philosophy, Greek and Latin classic; and translations of the classics, 1s. 6d. each.

Letters from Holland, during a tour from Harwich to Helvoetsluys, Brill, Rotterdam, Delft, Hague, Leyden, Haarlem, Amsterdam, &c. describing these different places, &c. 12mo. 3s. 6d. 1s. 6d.

Lewis and Clarke's (Capt.) Travels to the source of the Missouri river, and across the American continent to the Pacific ocean, in 1804, 1805, and 1806, with a map of the route, and other maps, 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d.

Longman, Hurst, Rees, Orme, and Browne's General Catalogue of valuable and rare old Books; part 1 containing about 1000 volumes of Greek and Latin classics, principally the best or rarest editions, now selling at the prices annexed to each. The 2d part, which will be published in July,

will consist of Foreign and English literature. The 3d part, comprising an extensive collection of facetia, magic, witchcraft, mathematics, &c. will be published in August; and the 4th and last part, comprising the most extraordinary collection of early English poetry that has ever appeared for sale, will be published about Christmas.

Life and Death of a Monkey, or, the Village of Alten; a Tale for young persons, 12mo. 6s.

Lindsay's (R. of Pittscottie) *Cronicles of Scotland*, published from several old manuscripts, 2 vols. 8vo. 14. 1s.

Madan's *Grotius*, 8vo. n. ed. 12s.

Malcolm's (D. L.L.D.) *Sorrows of Love*, a poem, in 4 books, with other occasional poems. n. ed. 5s. 6d.

Mansfield Park, a novel. By the author of *Sense and Sensibility*; and *Pride and Prejudice*. 3 vols. 12mo. 18s.

Memoirs of the Wernerian Society, vol. 2, part 1. for 1811, 12, 13. 8vo. 12s.

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